

THE
CRITICAL REVIEW.

SERIES THE THIRD.

VOL. XV. OCTOBER, 1808.

No. II.

ART. I.—*The Erodiad, a Poem, by the Authors of Calvary and Richard the First. 2 Vols. 4to. Lackington. 1807.*

IF the present age is deemed inferior to that which preceded it, in the production of poetic power, it must be allowed to be superior in the pride of poetic pretension. That species of poem, for the execution of which, Milton, with an awful sense of the magnitude of the labour, prepared himself from an early period of his life; and which Dryden, with all his mighty powers, only contemplated at a distance as a work which, with the genial fostering of the public patronage, he might, perhaps, be so bold as to undertake, is now become an every-day exhibition—a task which a host of our contemporary verse-makers consider themselves, with unabashed intrepidity, as qualified to accomplish. If we respect only the title-pages of poems, we shall be induced to distinguish the present age as the age of heroic poetry. Within the space of a few years, we have seen a succession of epics pass quietly from the press to *their own place*, at the grocer's or the trunk-maker's. Having *strutted or fretted their hour*, in the author's closet, or the printer's work-room, *they are now heard no more*; and their names will probably be known to the next generation only as they are preserved in the recording page of periodical criticism. To specify the immediate objects of our reference might give pain, at the same time that it is unnecessary: for our present readers cannot be at a loss to recollect them; and to those who may hereafter turn over our pages, a list of these ambitious and mortal poems, the numbers of which encrease almost with the day, can be of very inconsiderable importance. The writers of most of these works in verse may possibly console themselves for their ill-success by imputing it to the defective taste of an unpoetic age; and

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to the judgment of the present age, in the labours of the muse, no high compliment can, in truth, be paid, since it has not prohibited the popularity of some wild and obscure rhapsodies, which have been formed in defiance of every principle of legitimate composition. But we will venture to predict that the age, in which our modern epic bards shall obtain the popular regard, will never arrive; and that, without a sufficiency of the ethereal spirit to prolong their existence, the most which can be hoped for them is that they may be preserved, like mummies, in the cabinets of the curious; and, to shew that such things have been, may occasionally be exhibited to the inquisitive eye of the virtuoso of a distant day. By this proëmium, however, we would not be understood as intending to anticipate the sentence of the 'Exodiad,' the merits of which we will endeavour justly to appreciate, and to submit with the most perfect impartiality to the judgment of our readers.

What first occurs to us, in our observation of this poem, is the singular circumstance of its being the production of two friendly and united muses:

'We are conscious,' say our authors, in a short advertisement prefixed to their work, 'that instances of poetical partnership are extremely rare, and in the epic line this of ours very probably stands alone. We need not however blush to confess what was our motive for this singular coalition; for it originated in that unreserved communication of ideas, which mutual confidence and long intimacy warrant.'

'In the same spirit we have proceeded through every period of our labours, in which we do not wish to point out our respective rights to either praise or blame, nor could we if we would.'

In the multitude of counsellors, as the wise man informs us, there is safety: and in the conduct of the great concerns of nations, where a variety of complex and frequently jarring interests are to be ascertained and combined, it is obvious that the result of collective wisdom and knowledge must be more properly the subject of confidence than the decision of any individual mind. But in those works of the human brain, for the perfection of which a certain unity of sentiment and of power is indispensably requisite, the effort of contributory talents will rarely be found successful. Without the effect of that perfect harmony and symmetry, which are necessary for a great poetic creation, the produce of co-operating minds will almost always exhibit much of the disarrangement and discord of a chaos. In the present day, indeed, it has been asserted by some German scholars, who

wish to find their way to celebrity through the by-path of paradox, that the *Iliad* was produced by different rhapsodists, existing, indeed, in the same country, but separated by distinct periods of times. The support of this hypothesis has answered a double purpose to its advancers; for it has enabled them to display, at once, the stores of their literary affluence; and the acuteness of their critical research. But by any man, who is capable of appreciating the perfect identity of power, with the complete uniformity of sentiment and of diction, which pervades this wonderful poem, the position of these affecters of paradox must immediately be rejected; and must be classed with those attempts of literary insolence to impose upon our credulity that the sixth book of the *Æneis* contains a representation of the mysteries of Eleusis, or that all the great classics of antiquity, which time has spared to us, are nothing more than forgeries executed by the ingenuity of some of the middle ages. It is true that, in our country, we have witnessed the production of some superior dramas by the coalition of two wits; and it may be thought that the drama, exacting as it does above all other compositions, a rigid unity of design, would be peculiarly impatient of this partnership of working talent. But the drama, as it must be recollected, is more easily separable than other poems into nearly equal parts; and will, of course, admit of a more equal division of labour: while the fable and the business of the scenes are adjusted by the judgment of one,—the characters may be drawn and the dialogue be supplied by the knowledge of life—by the wit and the fancy of another. The epic indeed, consists of the same parts with the dramatic poem: but that which constitutes the principal member of the latter, occupies a relatively inconsiderable place in the organization of the former; and he who, in the construction of an epic poem, designed nothing more than the meagre outline of the story, would be found to have contributed so little towards the accomplishment of the work as to be able to support his claim to a very small portion of the honour resulting from the success of the poetic adventure. The epopee, therefore, as less susceptible of a just partition of labour in its formation than the drama, is less capable of being properly executed by the incorporated efforts of more than one mind. This is our opinion; and founded, as we believe it to be, on the essential nature of the things in question, we conceive that it cannot be refuted by the evidence of facts. The work, indeed, now under our review, is the first instance, as far at least as our knowledge or recollection will authorize us to decide, of a poem of the epic species,

in which the experiment of united authorship has been fully tried: or the first in which every part of the production has been indiscriminately executed by the dexterity of two pens. Its authors are solicitous that we should regard the whole as the result of their blended labour; and as not 'distinguishable,' with reference to its respective parents, 'in member, joint, or limb.' Of this we are assured by the advertisement, from which we have already made a citation; and of this, also, we are prevented from doubting by the following passage, in unambitious verse, from the close of the seventh book of the poem:

'And if, when past the time that shall consign
Us and our cares to the oblivious grave,
If still a kind surviving friend should wish
To keep some brief memorial of our names,
This may it be! that as throughout the course
Of this *co-equal work* our conscious hearts
Ne'er form'd one wish for solitary praise,
So do we hope that after-times may hold
Our compact undivided and entire,
And let our friendship be our greatest fame.'

What friendship, a name which we must necessarily most highly honour, is thus desirous of joining together, we will not assume to separate. But that feat, which the human sensibility of the critic may not allow him to perform, has been effected, as we apprehend, by nature: or, in other words, the evident disparities of the poem have disappointed the affectionate purposes of the friendly writers. In every extended work of the mind of man, in which the fancy is principally engaged, there must be, as we are fully aware, considerable inequality of excellence. No imagination is, at all times, in the same state of vigour: it will be relatively luminous and dark; and whilst in one hour, it will suggest the 'thoughts that breathe and the words that burn,'—in another, its efforts will be less happy—neither glowing with soul, nor brilliant in array. Something also of inequality will be found inseparable from the work itself; of which parts will be repugnant to poetic ornament, and parts will provoke into action all the powers of the muse. Unequal composition, from both these causes, is discernible in the *Iliad*; and, from the same causes, unequal composition, not perhaps so frequent in its occurrence but, greater in its degree, is distinguishable in the *Paradise Lost*: but in the lowest of the inferior passages of these poems the unity of authorship is manifested by a certain identity of sentiment

and manner, which cannot be mistaken. When Homer and Milton fall into transient slumber, their countenances, it is true, lose a portion of their waking animation : their features, however, still retain their discriminating character ; and in their assemblage may still be traced the footsteps of the actuating divinity. But in the subject of our present attention, not only inequalities but discrepancies of composition, the evidences of a distinct genus of mind, if we may so express ourselves, are strikingly apparent ; and without the information in the title page, we could have pronounced the *Exodiad* to be, not a Pallas, springing in vigorous integrity from one creative head, but a creature produced by an union of two very different elements, like one of those that are said to be born of the slime of the Nile and the beams of the sun. If we were called upon for the proof of what we thus assert, we could adduce many parts of the poem which evidently betray a difference of parentage. We will not indeed pretend to assign the languid or the sprightly offspring to its particular father : and we shrink from a task so invidious as that of allotting the measured prose of the *Exodiad* to one of the tuneful friends, and the poetry to another : but satisfied that composition of such a distinct character and complexion could not result from the same mind ; and leaving the success and the failure unappropriated, in a kind of co-parcenary, as a lawyer would call it, between the younger and the elder bard, we shall proceed to examine the work before us in its abstracted state, and without any reference to its authors.

The term '*Exodiad*,' then, as employed for the title of this poem, the subject of which is not the departure of the Israelites from Egypt but their subsequent march through the desert, strikes us as a very egregious misnomer : for of the great events, which preceded and accomplished the deliverance of the people of God from their Egyptian yoke, no information is supplied during the course of the poem, excepting what is casually and inadequately suggested in a speech made by Moses in the first book. The poem, in short, opens on the Arabian coast of the Red Sea, and concludes with the death of Moses on the summit of Pisgah. If its authors, therefore, were resolved to coin a title for it on the suggestion of their lexicon, we think that the '*Eremiad*,' would have been better suited to their purpose than the '*Exodiad*;' a term which is calculated to mislead other readers, as, in the first instance, it actually misled us.

With respect to the fable, or action of this poem, we must pronounce it to be destitute of that degree of unity,

which just criticism imperiously requires, not only in the dramatic and the epic, but, in every extended poem which is not purely descriptive. We may allow that the Exodiad has a legitimate end; since Moses, who may perhaps be regarded as it's hero, assures us, a little before his death, of the final establishment of the elect nation in the country which had been promised to them; but that it has a beginning, such a beginning we mean as is required by the critic for an epic poem, is a point not so certainly to be ascertained. At the opening of the action, the Israelites are arrayed on the eastern shore of the Red-sea; and soon afterwards, we are informed that the same miraculous interposition, which for them had divided and suspended the sea, had closed it on their pursuers, and had thus destroyed Pharoah and his host: but of the events, which led to this great catastrophe, we are not indulged, as we have already intimated, with any specific or clear information. We are, therefore, in want of knowledge which we ought to possess; and the poem is consequently destitute of that beginning, which leaves us nothing to require before it. If we are all acquainted with the previous history we are indebted for our acquaintance with it to another page than that of the poets, and have a just right to complain of the imperfection of their work. But, passing over this question, as liable to be contested, we will venture to assert that the fable of the Exodiad is without a proper middle.—The causes and effects in the poem are not so closely and firmly linked together as to be productive of poetic truth; and some of the intervening incidents may be regarded as neither retarding nor accelerating the progress of the principal action. The episode of Jethro, for instance, and the battle with Amalek might, certainly, be rescinded with advantage to the integrity of the fable. These events, however, as being historically true, might not be considered by the poets as omissible at their pleasure; and the defect, which, as critics, we are compelled to remark, may be ascribed by them to the necessity of their subject: but we think that the introduction of these events might have been more artificially managed; and have been brought into closer if not vital connexion with the great action of the poem. As it is now arranged, the Exodiad must be regarded as a history in verse rather than as a poem:—as a work in which events are related in the order in which they happened: but in which one event is not necessarily generated by that which precedes it, or productive of that which follows it;—in which, in short, all the lines are not drawn in true and accurate perspective to one common point of sight.

The characters or manners of the piece, though not struck out with any great vigour of invention, are delineated with sufficient discrimination, and are preserved with sufficient consistency. But, with exception to the character of Moses, which could be found only in the sacred page, they present us with nothing new; and shew us only our old acquaintances, 'who fought at Thebes or Ilium,' converted by their names and their worship of Jehovah into members of the family of Abraham. The portrait of Korah, however who is made, in his person, the representative of the Thersites of the Iliad, is given in a strong and bold style; and the whole of his part, with his apostacy, and what is connected with it, the machinery of Chemos, we regard as forming the most poetic portion of the Exodiad. With respect to the character of Moses, we conceive that it has suffered under the hands of our poets. Instead of the august and majestic mortal, whose vigour of eye * and whose natural force were not abated, as the sacred record informs us, at the very moment of his death, when he had attained his hundred and twentieth year, the Exodiad presents to us a feeble and worn out man, exhausted with cares and debilitated with age, who declares that he passed his days and nights in terrors, which nothing less than the immediate agency of the Divinity could enable him to support. Is this, we will ask, a dignified, or indeed a just representation of the favoured prophet of the Most High, who was employed by him to communicate his laws to his elected people, and who was admitted to converse with him as his friend? After one of his holy conferences with the Deity the face of Moses shone with such intense lustre; or, in other words, received so strong and durable an impression of the divine glory, that the people were unable to sustain the sight of it; and the prophet when he spoke to them was obliged to conceal its radiance beneath a veil. In the page of our poets this magnificent circumstance, dwindles into a common fact, not necessarily imputable to a supernatural cause, and divested of all its peculiar grandeur and sublimity.

'And as he spake, so bright his visage shone,
That from his presence, instantly they shrunk;
As from the radiance of the glorious sun,
Fly the dark shadows of retiring night.' (B. 4th. 201.)

* And Moses was an hundred and twenty years old when he died: his eye was not dim, nor his natural force abated. Deut. c. 34. v. 7.

When the great prophet is conducted to the close of his mortal life, he is represented by our bards, as requiring, like any common individual of his species, the divine aid to sustain him under the terrors of dissolution ; and his last breath is surrendered with a *deep-drawn* sigh. This we conceive to be essentially injudicious and unpoetic ; for this is not, as Lord Bacon finely expresses it, to submit the shows of things to our desires, but to mortify our desires by holding to us the image of something even below strict truth.—This, in short, is not to raise and ennoble, consistently with the great aim of poetry ; but to have recourse, as is probable, to positive falsehood for the perverse purposes of degrading. This is, also, to reflect on the power of the Almighty, as, insufficient in the cause of his most distinguished and elevated minister to suspend the common weaknesses of humanity : and it is not a solitary instance, in which the divine power is introduced, in the Exodiad, as operating with a certain degree of imbecility, and producing only an imperfect effect. When Elishama and Joshua, one the leader, and the other the gigantic hero of the army of Israel, are brought to their tents in the act almost of expiration, in consequence of the wounds which they had received in the battle with Amalek, their preservation is miraculously accomplished at the intercession of Moses, and the spirit of health is wafted, in a sensible breeze, into their exhausted frames : but their recovery is, by no means, complete, Joshua, on whom the divine restorative seems to have worked with the most efficiency, is still pale and languid from his loss of blood ; and poor Elishama, though rescued from death, continues so ghastly in appearance, and so feeble in fact, as to be pronounced incapable of any further service. Is not this to represent the Divinity as a sort of clumsy workman, and as able to attain his ends only to a limited degree ? A miracle ought unquestionably to be perfect in its effect ; and we decide, in this instance, on evangelical authority. When the lame man is restored by our blessed Lord, he *takes up his bed* and walks : when he who was born a cripple, is recovered by Peter and John, he *runs and leaps* ; and soon after Lazarus has been recalled from that grave, in which he had lain during four days, it is recorded that he was one of the guests who sat at table at a *feast*.

Of the machinery of the poem we have not much to say. On that portion of it which respects Chemos, the principal object of idolatrous worship among the nations of Palestine, we have already spoken with merited approbation : but in the other parts of the supernatural agency introduced into the

Exodiad, we can distinguish neither much power of imagination nor correctness of judgment in the design, nor any peculiar happiness of hand in the execution. Some sublime manifestations of Jehovah, recorded in the Pentateuch, have been omitted by our poets : and we think that they discover very erroneous taste when they represent the commandments as rehearsed by Moses, and not as spoken, as we know that they were, immediately to the people by the Deity, out of the fire on the blazing mount ; from ' the secret top ' (as Milton finely expresses it) of Horeb, amidst thund'ring and lightnings and thick darkness. Our bards, perhaps, might consider it as too presumptuous to introduce the Almighty in the act of articulating his commandments in poor and vapid verse : but the decalogue, as it exists in the original Hebrew was written by the finger of God in the very words in which it was uttered ; and if it be lawful, as in our judgment it is, to translate this awful code into the numbers of another language, to introduce it into a poem, as issuing from the lips of its heavenly Author, would be an act equally void of offence, and equally insusceptible of any charge of violated decorum. We conceive, in short, that to make the Deity write bad verse, is not a whit less improper or indecent than to make him speak it. If our enterprising writers, it is true, were resolved on the odd adventure of turning the ten commandments into verse, they might have accomplished their undertaking with more felicity : or, if they could not, it would have been more prudent for them, in our judgment, to have declined it ; and to have recollected what the Roman critic remarks of the able poet,—

et quæ,

Desperat tractata nitescere posse, relinquit :

for as it now stands in the Exodiad, the decalogue neither impresses us with the weighty simplicity of prose, nor pleases us with the ornamented diction and the harmonious numerousness of verse : it is indeed, to express ourselves in plainer terms, better calculated to excite our laughter than to excite our respect and veneration.

In the eighth or last book of the poem, Chemos is decried as blasted with lightning, and falling, in a shattered and maimed condition, just at the foot of the imperial throne of Satan. In this we see nothing but what we can praise ; and in the subsequent dialogue between these apostate angels ; as well as in the rising of the superior fiend, *like the pillar'd sand, caught up by eddy'ing whirlwinds from the Lybi-*

an waste, and mounting to heaven, we acknowledge something like the sublime spirit of Milton : but the object, for which Hell's great emperor exerts himself in this place with so much majesty, that we mean, of seizing the corpse of Moses, appears to us to be strikingly deficient in importance. The hint of this baffled attempt is taken from one of those writings, which have not been always admitted to a place in the sacred canon. Allowing, however, the authority for the story to be good, so little of it has been revealed to us, and we are left so wholly in the dark as to its causes or its intended effects, that it seems to be unfit for admission into an epic poem. What ends of the prince of hell could be answered by his possessing himself of the mortal relics of the Jewish prophet ; or how, in opposition to the will of the Omnipotent, he could hope to accomplish his purpose, are circumstances which we are unable to explain ; and we know only that the fact cannot be invested with any consequence in the action of the poem. When, by the creed of paganism, the rites of sepulture were regarded as necessary for the repose of the separated spirit, it was of importance to lay the dead hero on the funeral pile, and to collect his ashes in the urn ; but when the favoured servant of the true God is departed to his master, and is certainly admitted to a state of supreme beatitude, the disposal of the inanimate clay, in which he lately resided, can be an object of no imaginable moment. The event in question may, in point of fact, be true : but it is destitute of that poetic truth which alone can render it proper for a place in a regular poem. Our authors, as it must be owned, have made sad work of it. Satan rises in terrible dignity from his throne, and prepares himself with much confidence for the enterprise. He approaches, and enters into a haughty, and arrogant conference with Michael, who is commissioned by the Almighty to defeat his design ; and immediately, on the drawing of the Archangel's guardian sword, he is struck with thunder, and hurled, blasted and in despair, to the place from whence he came. After all his presumptuous hopes and proud boastings, he is not suffered to enjoy the most remote chance of victory, or even admitted to a contest with his old adversary : and what attaches a degree of ridicule to this causeless and inconsequent attempt is the fact of its being made for the purpose of seizing the dead body of a man who is still living : and who is at this very moment, actuated by the spirit of God to disclose the future fates of his people.

Of the subordinate parts of the *Exodiad* we must notice with disapprobation that speech in the first book, in which

Moses relates, to the assembled tribes, the circumstances of the first revelation of the Almighty to him in the desert. When, sensible that some account of what had passed previously to the opening of the poem, would be required by their readers, our authors awkwardly contrived to make Aaron call upon his brother, for the satisfaction of the people, to enter into this long detail, they seem not to have been aware that they to whom it was addressed, must already have been acquainted with all the most important incidents which it communicates: for without some specific relation to give them the assurance of the divine mission of their proposed leader, is it in any degree credible that more than a million of rational creatures, in a state of relative weakness, and with their spirits broken by a long and heavy servitude, would so entirely have surrendered their confidence to one of their own equals, as to be induced by him to the fearful act of rebelling against the imperious monarch of Egypt, armed as he was with every mean of human power to baffle and to punish their attempt? But this speech of the Jewish chief's says also too little as well as too much: for it conveys no intelligence of the miracles, which immediately effected the deliverance of Israel; and these, as it has been before remarked, it was of consequence to us to know. These, however, without the incurrance of more obvious absurdity, could not be introduced into the present narration; and we are therefore permitted to be informed of them as we can.

The whole of the fifth book is assigned to the adventures of the spies, who are sent to explore the countries, which were to be invaded. This episode, if so it may be called, is sufficiently connected with the action of the poem: but the space, allotted to it, is too great; and the interruption occasioned by it, too long. This book, indeed, we are inclined to regard as the least valuable of the eight which constitute the work. Its events are conceived with no force of fancy; and the effort in it for poetic diction is more evidently laborious than in the others, and more certainly unsuccessful.

Of the diction, throughout the piece the general character is imbecility and tameness: but occasionally it assumes a stronger and bolder tone, and becomes entitled to our respect. The lines are seldom deficient in rhythm, but as seldom do they gratify the ear with the charm of varied and superior harmony. In a few instances they offend us with a superfluous syllable at their close: a fault of which some of our best writers of heroic blank verse are casually guilty, but which, notwithstanding, ought to be censured as a transgression of the barrier between the looser and more colloquial

numbers of the drama and the stricter and more elevated of the epopee. When our poets had arranged their accented and unaccented, their long and short syllables in such an order as to form a verse, they imagined that they had discharged the whole of their duty, and that their reader's ear had nothing more to require from them as the framers of the tongue of poetry. But the study of Milton and of Dryden ought to have taught them a better lesson, and instructed them in the arts of producing a higher and more exquisite harmony by the happy combination of letters, and the variety of modulation and pause. If the numbers, however, of our English epic have not been made to excel by the authors of the Exodiad, we are yet obliged to these writers for rejecting the false taste of that school of verse, which has been formed under the auspices of Cowper; and refusing, on the authority of these masters, to solicit the effect of variety from discord. Very few instances are to be found in the Exodiad of dissonant and defective verse.

If in the minuter examination of the diction of this poem, we were to notice all the faults of different descriptions, which have every where occurred to us, we should extend the present article to an immeasurable length, but we will notice only a few of them; and, having discharged this part of our critical duty, we will close our remarks on the Exodiad with an extract of one of it's best passages. In the first book we read of *broaching* complaint; and, in more than one place, of *broaching* slander; a tap-house metaphor to which, when issuing from the mouth of the epic Muse, we must necessarily object. In l. 443 of this book, we find the expression of, '*incarnadine these desert sands*;' for which the authority of Shakespeare, in one of his most exceptionable passages, will not be sufficient to exculpate our poets.

At l. 751, of the same book, we have this laboured and formal imagery:

'For memory to every passion lends
Her *plastic* tablets; and no tints are deep
As those which envy's pallet can supply.'

where the word *plastic*, is used in a passive, instead of an active sense, of which alone it is susceptible.

A little before, at l. 645, Moses says,

'I felt
A sudden impulse seize on all my powers.'

when in our opinion, an *impulse* cannot seize.

At l. 1029.—'What mighty projects of ambition breed
And *bourgeon* in his heart?'

we would observe that the word in italics, of which our authors discover themselves, by their frequent use of it, to be particularly fond, is, on every principle of taste, objectionable, for it is obscure and affected; and is, besides, an unnaturalized alien. A poem ought to be wholly written in the language of the people to whom it is addressed. When we are on the subject of English composition, we avow ourselves to be the most zealous Anti-Gallicans.

In b. iii. l. 95, we are told of 'things that shall be done of me,' &c. for, 'by me.' And in the same book, in the description of the sublime revelation of Jehovah from Sinai, at the promulgation of the law, we find the diminutive '*cornet*,' substituted with uniform perverseness for the grand trumpet.

L. 1050, of this book, surely gives us very unnecessary information.

'Father and mother, (*for of them thou art*),—

In b. v. l. 115, we are told, respecting the Jewish spies, that they

'Strictly searched each inlet, if perchance

The *wild ass* or the *antelope* had left

Some *clue*, whereby to thread the *craggy maze*.'

Now if a clue, be, as we conceive it to be, a ball of thread, we think it odd that such a thing should be expected from the wild-ass or the antelope, and in a state also, by being judiciously unrolled, to thread the craggy maze.

In l. 194, of this book, Joshua, with strong hostility to our stomachs, calls the Asphaltic or dead sea, a *black Tartarean vomit*, cast up by the sickened earth; for the strange purpose of being the *winding-sheet* of the people of Sodom, &c. !!!

After an interval of not many lines, we find the same chief; speaking of Lot's wife, as of,

'A woman, by the word of God, at once,
Turn'd to a statue, &c.'

On this we would observe that the true fact is here misrepresented, and not for any proper purpose of the poets. Lot's wife, as we are informed by the sacred historian, was

changed into a pillar of salt; or, in other words, being caught, in consequence of her lingering and turning to look back, in the nitro-sulphureous shower, which destroyed the city, where she had dwelt, her whole frame was at once so penetrated and so covered with the fiery fusion, that it was instantly fixed; and, when the minerals had cooled, it presented the appearance of a rude erect mass, somewhat resembling a pillar of salt. This seems to have been the plain fact: and this, as we think, would convey to future times, a more awful idea of the divine vengeance, than a statue, finer than any one that has ever lived from the chissel of *Praxiteles*. Our poets indeed, are puzzled to make *their statue* agree with the historic fact, for after animating this statue with much life,

‘ See! in the very act of flight, her head,
Reverted, wild her air, her hand outstretcht;’

they tell us that ‘ she stands a pillar of salt.’

The *four and twenty kings* in l. 481, of the same book, strongly remind us of the four and twenty fiddlers all in a row, of the old ballad. When, in our progress through this book we read, in l. 801, that ‘ roused from their *lair* they started,’ &c. we were inclined to doubt whether the beings, who were thus disturbed, were wild beasts or men.

In l. 1029, of this book, we question the strict propriety of ‘ *Hag-ridden* by the *Demon*.’

B. vi. l. 11, ‘ rides in the morbid air,’ is borrowed, without being improved, from, ‘ rides on the lurid air,’ in the tragedy of *Iæz*, published not many years ago. We state the fact, without intending to censure it: for if these *borrowings* among poets be not too frequent, or too considerable in their amount, we conceive them to be very allowable. But in the following book at l. 484 occurs an offence, which is not equally entitled to pardon, for we are here told of enthusiasts, who are screw’d

‘ By incantations, to the very pitch,
Which overpeers discretion, and would scale
Those rocks, &c.’

To the expression of ‘ screwing to the pitch,’ our bards seem very partial, as they frequently have recourse to it: but the metaphor, taken from the language of music, is a very trite one, and pleasing, as we think, neither to the ear nor the fancy. Where it is used, however, with propriety,

we shall forbear to attack it: but in this place it must not be uncensured, for surely it is highly absurd to make a *pitch over-peer discretion and scale rocks*.

But our readers must now be as much tired as we certainly are of this long enumeration of faults. Easily extensible, therefore, as the list is to fourfold its present length, we will here close it; and proceed to make a compensation, to all parties, by extracting a passage, which we have already mentioned with praise, and which certainly possesses considerable merit, from the last book of the poem. It is but justice at the same time, to say, that notwithstanding its numerous defects and its general poverty, the Exodiad can boast of many other passages not inferior in merit to that which we thus submit to our readers.

‘ Now to the dismal and obscure abyss,
By earth call’d hell, by heav’n the place reserv’d,
Where Satan o’er his fallen angels reigns
In the profound of uncreated night,
Chemos, no longer on the blast up-borne,
Headlong with dire precipitation fell,
And at the footstool of th’ enthroned Sin,
His king infernal, lay a hideous wreck,
Stretcht on the solid sulphur: his fine form,
Cast in ethereal mould, and perfect once
In grace angelic, to th’ appalled eye
Of hell’s great sultan seem’d a shapeless mass:
Still on his shatter’d wings and rivell’d locks,
That when in heav’n with roseate brightness shone,
The unquencht lightning prey’d. At length, half-rais’d,
He turn’d his ghastly eyes where Satan sat
In clouded majesty, and sighing cried—
“ Ah, why is death, all living nature’s friend,
Giv’n as the period of his pain to man,
And yet to me refus’d, who roll in fires,
Which, to endure one moment, might atone
For all th’ offences I have done on earth
Since I lost Heav’n? Oh, give me but exchange
Of agonies, Omnipotence severe!
And whelm me underneath the icy rocks,
That strike their roots into the polar sea,
So I may quench these arrows. Mighty Lord!
Son of the morning once, whose radiant sphere,
Exalted high above th’ angelic thrones,
Dazzled the seraphim, and caus’d them wage
Ambitious war with Heav’n’s eternal king,
Succour thy servant, who for thee hath held
Vicarious empire over Moab’s realm,

Farrest of lands, whose firming altars breath'd
 Incense so sweet, methought I still inbal'd
 Celestial odours, and almost forgot
 That I was rest of heav'n, till Moses wav'd
 His wizard rod, and Joshua couch'd his spear;
 And the foul raven of Chaldaea croak'd
 His death-denouncing knell: then, then I saw
 Spell-stricken Moab turn to shameful flight,
 Then Amorrhæa's king ignobly died,
 Whilst from his iron chariot down at once
 Balaam's gigantic champion fell, and roll'd
 His laurel-crown'd temples in the dust;
 Then Jacob's ruthless sons, with slaughter flush,
 Tore down my altars, burnt my sacred grove,
 And from the heights of Abarim display'd
 The vengeful trophies of their conqu'ring God.
 For me there needs no witness: these deep scars
 Are pledges of my loyalty, and prove
 The power, that vanquish'd Moab, spar'd not me.
 And now let Baal, and let Moloch judge,
 (They stand beside thee) from my piteous state
 What mercy is reserv'd for Canaan's gods.
 "Talk not of mercy, Satan frowning cried;
 He, that commands the heav'ns, affects it not,
 And we, who reign in hell, nor deign to ask,
 Nor study to deserve it. We have warr'd
 With Him, who wields the thunder, and 'twere vain,
 'Twere profitless to murmur at the stroke
 If He, who chains the whirlwinds, let them loose
 To hunt us through th' interminable void,
 We meet them as we may. Had we those arms,
 We should not spare to use them: in our ears,
 As now in his, mercy would lose her suit.
 No more of mercy then! In God tow'rd's us,
 'Twould cease to be a virtue, and in us,
 Here fated to associate with the damn'd,
 'Twould be an attribute unworth' hell.
 Know then, desponding cherub, when you call
 On me to save you, you appeal to one,
 Who could not save himself; when you confess
 Yourself tormented, your tormenter smiles;
 But when you sigh for death, you sure forget
 That I, who thwarted the creator's work,
 And taught the first-form'd pair to disobey,
 Sent that abhorred anatomy on earth,
 And made him the sole property of man;
 Whilst angel spirits, like myself and thee,
 Immortal reign'd ere he receiv'd a name:
 And thou shalt reign; therefore cast off despair:
 The courage, that defies the stronger pow'r,

Must brave the pains its conqueror may inflict :

It is our doom to suffer, and this place

Was not allotted to us for repose.

Arise, and stand !

After what has been suggested, in more than one of our associate reviews, on the subject of poetic orthography, we were surprised to find the pages of the Exodiad perpetually deformed to the eye, and in truth also, to the ear, with such maimed and barbarous words—as, discharg'd, rang'd, advanc'd, &c. where from the want of a following *e* the *g*, and the *c*, are, by the scale of English pronunciation, hard—as in rang, frame, &c. or such words as, defam'd, defil'd, hop'd, rul'd, &c. where the vowels, *a*, *i*, *o*, and *u*, are all by the excision of the *e*, which ought to follow the consonant that is immediately connected with them, made short—as in rām, fill, hōp, trull, truss, &c. Where the uninflected verb is concluded with the silent *e*, this vowel ought to be preserved in the inflected sense, &c. as indispensably necessary either to soften the preceding consonant or to lengthen the preceding vowel. The only exception to this rule is in words where *d* forms the ultimate consonant—as glide, abide, &c. This principle of poetic orthography was stated some years ago in an article on Wakefield's Pope's Homer in the Analytical Review ; and it has lately been enforced in the Monthly, in an article on Good's translation of Lucretius.

ART. II.—*The History of the Rise, Progress, and Accomplishment of the Abolition of the African Slave Trade, by the British Parliament.* By Thomas Clarkson, M.A. 2 Vols. 8vo. 11. 4s. 1808.

'IN whatever light,' says Mr. Clarkson, 'we consider the slave trade, whether we examine the nature of it, or wheth^r we look into the extent of it, or whether we estimate the difficulty of subduing it, we must conclude that no evil more monstrous has ever existed upon earth. But if so, then we have proved the truth of the position, that the abolition of it ought to be accounted by us as one of the greatest blessings, and that it ought to be one of the most copious sources of our joy. Indeed, I do not know how we can sufficiently express what we ought to feel upon this occasion. It becomes us as individuals to rejoice. It becomes us as a nation to rejoice. It becomes us even to perpetuate our joy to our posterity. I do not mean, however, by anniversaries, which are to be celebrated by the ringing of bells and convivial meetings, but by handing down this great event so impressively to our children, as

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to raise in them, if not continual, yet frequently renewed thanksgivings to the great Creator of the universe, for the manifestation of this his favour in having disposed our legislators to take away such a portion of suffering from our fellow-creatures, and such a load of guilt from our native land.'

We entirely agree with Mr. Clarkson in the magnitude of the evil and in the abundant cause of joy, of gratitude, and praise, which there is in its removal.

From his first to his tenth chapter, Mr. Clarkson gives an account of the different individuals, whose philanthropic labours contributed to influence the public opinion in favour of the abolition, previous to the formation of the committee in 1787, whose virtuous perseverance contributed so much to the accomplishment. We should think it an act of injustice not to mention the names of this heroic band of philanthropists. They were as follow :

Granville Sharp.
William Dillwyn.
Samuel Hoare.
George Harrison.
John Lloyd.
Joseph Woods.

Thomas Clarkson.
Richard Phillips.
John Barton.
Joseph Hooper.
James Phillips.
Philip Sansom.

Of these, all except three, Mr. Sharp, Mr. Clarkson, and Mr. Sansom, belonged to the society of Quakers. From the period of the formation of this committee to the time of the abolition there was an interval of about twenty years, during which the advocates for the abolition pursued with unceasing diligence and zeal the glorious object which they had in view. During this interval, Mr. Clarkson was employed in various journies to different parts of England for the sake of procuring evidence of the injustice and the cruelty practised in the trade, and of furnishing the committee with such information as might facilitate their labours and enable them to apply to parliament with greater force of argument and more chance of success. The history of the abolition of the slave trade is therefore connected a good deal with the individual exertions of Mr. Clarkson. His personal history, during a large part of the above mentioned period, is incorporated with the general history of the abolition. Hardly any individual was ever employed on a mission more intimately connected with the happiness of a large portion of mankind, and, we believe, that even those, who were enemies to the abolition, will allow that Mr. Clarkson performed his part well.

The committee first very wisely defined their object to be the abolition of the slave trade, and not of the slavery, which was actually existing in the West India islands. These two objects they very prudently kept distinct; for while the abolition of the trade in slaves might be immediately carried into execution, the abolition of slavery itself could not rationally be attempted, as the insurrections in the French islands have clearly shewn, without a previous amelioration of the moral and physical condition of the slaves. This amelioration can only be *gradually* produced; and the abolition of the trade itself, by necessitating a more indulgent treatment of the negroes, and a greater degree of attention even to their intellectual and social improvement, will prepare the way for their emancipation. It will, in other words, finally render it a measure of personal interest as well as real policy. For a free labourer will always perform a degree of labour more than double that of a slave. And a free man will maintain himself for a much less expence than the master can maintain his slave. Thus, by gradually converting the negroes into a race of free-labourers the planters will in fact be able to get a greater quantity of work done at a less expence than they can while slavery remains. But to return from this digression.

The committee, according to the suggestion of Mr. Clarkson, agreed to send one of their body to Bristol, Liverpool, and Lancaster, in order to collect all the information which could be procured relative to this abominable traffic. Mr. Clarkson made a proffer of his services on this occasion, which were cheerfully accepted. The travelling expences, &c. of Mr. Clarkson were paid by the committee, and we believe that no pecuniary supplies, which he wanted, were ever withheld.

The first place, which Mr. Clarkson visited was Bristol. His introduction at this place was to one of the society of Quakers. His name was Harry Gandy; and he had in early life made two voyages in the slave trade; so that he was enabled to give Mr. C. much useful information. He was the more anxious to forward the views of Mr. Clarkson, in order, in some measure, to efface the regret which he felt for the share which he had formerly had in the traffic. Mr. Clarkson was also introduced to several other Quakers, all of whom expressed a benevolent willingness to co-operate in the work which he had undertaken.

'The objects,' says Mr. Clarkson, 'I had marked down as those to be attended were—to ascertain what were the natural produc-

tions of Africa, and, if possible, to obtain specimens of them, with a view of forming a cabinet or collection—to procure as much information as I could relative to the manner of obtaining slaves on the continent of Africa, of transporting them to the West Indies, and of treating them there—to prevail upon persons, having a knowledge of any, or all of these circumstances, to come forward to be examined as evidences before parliament, if such an examination should take place—to make myself still better acquainted with the loss of seamen in the slave trade—also with the loss of those who were employed in the other trades from the same port—to know the nature, and quantity, and value of the imports and exports of goods in the former case: there were some other objects, which I classed under the head of Miscellaneous.’

This was certainly a judicious distribution of the matter of enquiry; and we particularly commend his endeavours to produce specimens of the products of Africa, in order to shew that that much-injured continent would furnish other articles of commerce besides human flesh.

In this first journey Mr. Clarkson obtained a good deal of insight, not only into the cruelties which were practised on the slaves, but also on the crews of the slave-ships. Hence he learned that there was a general aversion among seamen from entering on board these ships, and that it was always with difficulty that the captains procured their complement of men. Among other instances of savage barbarity which Mr. Clarkson relates, he says that the captain of the crew of the ship *Brothers*, had fastened one of the crew, for a circumstance for which he was in no wise to blame, ‘with his belly to the deck, and that in this situation he had poured hot pitch upon his back, and made incisions in it with hot tongs.’ It is not at all surprizing that a trade so essentially inhuman and unjust, should harden the hearts of the captains even against their subordinate associates in the nefarious employment.

While Mr. Clarkson was at Bristol he was much struck

‘by the appearance of two little sloops which were fitting out for Africa, the one of only twenty-five tons, which was said to be destined to carry seventy; and the other of only eleven, which was said to be destined to carry thirty slaves!’—‘In the vessel of twenty-five tons, the length of the upper part of the hold or roof of the room, where the seventy slaves were to be stowed, was but little better than ten yards, or thirty-one feet. The greatest breadth of the bottom or floor was ten feet four inches, and the least five. Hence a grown person must sit down all the voyage, and contract his limbs within the narrow limits of three square feet. In the vessel of eleven tons, the length of the room for the thirty slaves was

twenty-two feet. The greatest breadth of the floor was eight, and the least four. The whole height from the keel to the beam was but five feet eight inches, three feet of which were occupied by ballast, cargo, and provisions; so that two feet eight inches remained only as the height between the decks. Hence each slave would have only four square feet to sit in, and, when in this posture, his head, if he were a full grown person, would touch the ceiling or upper deck.

Mr. C. endeavoured to prevail on some old slave captains who were living in Bristol, to come forward and give evidence respecting the trade, but no expostulations could induce them to do this; and he tells us that when they met him in the streets, they shunned him as if he had been a mad dog. At length he found a young gentleman of the name of Chandler, who had made one voyage to the coast of Africa and was then going out as surgeon on board of the *Pilgrim* slave ship, from whom he procured considerable information respecting the mode of obtaining slaves on the coast, the treatment which they experienced in the middle passage; and the barbarous usage of the seamen on board the ships. He promised Mr. C. to keep a journal of facts during his next voyage, and to give his testimony if required on his return.—He afterwards discovered a Mr. Arnold who had made two voyages to the coast of Africa and was then going a third, in the capacity of surgeon. He detailed various barbarities which he had witnessed in his former voyages, and promised to keep a journal of what occurred in that which he was then going to undertake. Mr. Clarkson next becomes acquainted with a Mr. Alexander Falconbridge who had made four different voyages as a surgeon to the coast of Africa. He had now left the trade, and expressed no objection to declare what he knew respecting the barbarity of the traffic.

‘Never’ says Mr. C. ‘were words more welcome to my ear than these—I have done with the trade.—And he said also that he was free to give me information concerning it. Was he not then one of the very persons whom I had so long been seeking, but in vain? To detail the accounts which he gave me at this and at subsequent interviews, relative to the different branches of this trade would fill no ordinary volume. Suffice it to say in general terms as far as relates to the slaves, that he confirmed the various violent and treacherous methods of procuring them in their own country; their wretched condition in consequence of being crowded together in the passage; their attempts to rise in defence of their own freedom, and when this was impracticable, to destroy themselves by the refusal of sustenance, by jumping overboard into the sea, and in other ways; the effect also of their situation upon their minds by producing insanity and various diseases; and the cruel manner of dispos-

ing of them in the West Indies, and of separating relatives and friends.'

Mr. C. next proceeds to Gloucester, Worcester and Chester, disposes the editors of the papers in those places to favour the cause of the abolition, and prepares the way for petitions to parliament against the trade. At Liverpool Mr. Clarkson added to his collection of African products, and procured a large stock of information relative to the cruelties practised in the different departments of the trade. His friend William Rathbone introduced him to a Mr. Norris, who

'Had formerly been a slave captain but had quitted the trade and settled as a merchant in a different line of business. He was a man of quick penetration, and of good talents, which he had cultivated to advantage, and he had a pleasing address both in speech and manners. He received me with great politeness and offered me all the information I desired. He said that the slave trade, by turning the attention of the inhabitants to the persons of one another for sale, hindered foreigners from discovering, and themselves from cultivating many of the valuable productions of their own soil. On the subject of procuring slaves he gave it as his decided opinion that many of the inhabitants of Africa were kidnapped by each other as they were travelling on the roads, or fishing in the creeks, or cultivating their little spots. Having learned their language, he had collected the fact from various quarters, but more particularly from the account of slaves, whom he had transported in his own vessels. With respect however to Whidah many came from thence who were reduced to slavery in a different manner. The king of Dahomey, whose life (with the wars and customs of the Duhomans) he said he was then writing, and who was a very despotic prince, made no scruple of seizing his own subjects and selling them, if he was in want of any of the articles which the slave vessels would afford him.'

As soon as the cause of Mr. Clarkson's journey to Liverpool was generally known, he became an object of hostility to the numerous individuals in that place who were concerned in the trade, so that he was in more than one instance exposed to danger from the brutality of their resentment.

At Manchester Mr. Clarkson found the sentiment of indignation against this abominable traffic becoming very general. Here, contrary to his usual practice, he preached a sermon on the subject at the request of many of the inhabitants, Mr. Clarkson gives the heads of this sermon,

which might as well have been omitted. At Birmingham Mr. C. perceived that a spirit of opposition to the continuance of the trade had been excited by the philanthropic efforts of Sampson and Charles Lloyd in conjunction with those of Mr. Russel.

During Mr. Clarkson's absence from the metropolis, the committee had been labouring with singular discretion, vigilance and industry in order to influence the public opinion in favour of the abolition. Having caused numerous tracts to be distributed throughout the country in favour of the measure: they opened a correspondence with the societies of Philadelphia and New York, and they received an offer from Brissot, to co-operate with them in the attainment of the great end which they had in view. Brissot

'Purposed to translate and circulate through France such publications as they might send him from time to time, and to appoint bankers in Paris who might receive subscriptions and remit them to London for the good of their common cause. In the mean time if his own countrymen should be found to take an interest in this great cause, it was not improbable that a committee might be formed in Paris, to endeavour to secure the attainment of the same object from the government of France.'

'The thanks of the committee were voted to Brissot for this disinterested offer of his services, and he was elected an honorary and corresponding member. In reply however to his letter it was stated that as the committee had no doubt of procuring from the generosity of their own nation sufficient funds for effecting the object of their institution, they declined the acceptance of any pecuniary aid from the people of France, but recommended him to attempt the formation of a committee in his own country, and to inform them of his progress, and to make to them such other communications as he might deem necessary upon the subject from time to time.'

Brissot has been so much calumniated by Burke and by persons of inferior note, that we purposely select this testimony to his philanthropy. Brissot was an enthusiast but not a profligate; he was sometimes hurried away from the clear region of common sense in the too zealous pursuit of speculative principles of liberty; but he was not destitute of probity, and in his heart he wished and he meant well to France and to mankind. Mr. Clarkson mentions the names of numerous persons who, at this time, expressed a desire to co-operate with the society in promoting the abolition. Indeed the whole kingdom had in some measure become interested in the discussion of the measure, and petitions had begun to be presented to parliament for carrying it into execution.

In February, 1788, the king ordered a committee of the privy council to take into their consideration the present state of the African trade. The first examinations, which took place, consisted of partial representations which were made by the delegates from Liverpool, and tended to prove that the slave trade prevented greater barbarities which would otherwise be exercised by the princes of Africa upon their prisoners and subjects; and that, consequently, it was rather a blessing than a curse. But other evidence was produced, the secrets of the prison-house were disclosed, the mystery of iniquity was unfolded and the delusion vanished. On the 9th of May, 1788, the momentous question was first agitated in the House of Commons. The debate was opened by Mr. Pitt, who simply moved that the circumstances of the slave trade complained of in the petitions should be taken into consideration in the next session of parliament. We believe that Mr. Pitt was sincerely convinced of the impolicy and injustice of the trade; but inferior interests and subordinate considerations operated on his mind, and prevented him from exerting that almost omnipotent influence, which he, at that time, possessed in the cabinet, and in the House of Commons, to carry it into effect. Thus, though the subject was repeatedly brought before the house during his long administration, and though he constantly spoke in favour of the abolition, yet he died without effecting it! We by no means dispute the sincerity of his conviction that the trade was an accumulation of all iniquity, and that the abolition was a measure of justice and humanity; yet we do think that he never exerted himself so strenuously as he ought, and so *successfully as he might*, to carry the measure into effect. Had its tendency been, not to redress the wrongs of Africa, but to increase the prerogatives of the crown, he would instantly have forced it through both houses, even though it had been opposite to the wishes of nine-tenths of the kingdom; but he never supported the abolition of the slave trade, which was recommended by the most powerful considerations of humanity, with half the energy or influence which he evinced in passing a common revenue-law. The abolition of the slave trade proved in *his hands*, only a source of rhetorical declamation, it was *vox et præterea nihil*; and if Mr. Fox and Lord Grenville had not come into office, it is probable that the abolition of this execrable traffic would still have remained, like the emancipation of the Catholics, a fruitful topic for parliamentary debate.

In the first debate on the subject which took place in the House of Commons the general disposition of that assembly

seemed to be decidedly hostile to the continuance of the trade; and the moral and humane feeling of the majority would instantly have pronounced its abolition; but considerations of what is called *policy* were suffered to prevail over those of justice and humanity. When any measure is proved to be radically inhuman and unjust, it is of itself a sufficient reason for its immediate abandonment. No considerations of fugitive interest ought to be suffered to plead for its continuance. But Mr. Pitt, after he had condemned the slave trade as repugnant to every principle of justice and humanity, yet continued, during the whole of his administration, while he lavished on it a torrent of wordy invective, to give it his actual and practical support. He who permits an evil to exist which he might extirpate, must be regarded as participating in the guilt. Mr. Pitt, who was the most absolute minister that this country ever knew, could have prevented the continuance of the slave trade; he had only to utter his sincere and hearty *fiat* in favour of the abolition, and it would instantly have taken place. Whatever glory therefore may belong to those who procured the abolition, no part of it is *his* due. Mr. Clarkson may have his own reasons for thinking otherwise; but we feel it a sacred duty to be no respecters of persons, and to speak plain truths in a plain way.

Where the humane cannot eradicate a disease they may attempt palliations, and thus diminish an evil which they have not power to destroy. This was done by Sir William Dolben in the same session, in which the first debate occurred on the slave trade. He brought in a bill to prevent the slaves

‘ from being crowded too close together on board ship; to secure to them good and sufficient provisions; and to take cognizance of other matters which related to their health and accommodation.’

Such regulations as these were the more necessary when we consider that

‘ every slave, whatever his size might be, was found to have only five feet six inches in length, and sixteen inches in breadth, to lie in. The floor was covered with bodies stowed or packed according to this allowance. But between the floor and the deck or ceiling were often platforms or broad shelves in the mid-way, which were covered with bodies also. The height from the floor to the ceiling, within which space the bodies on the floor and those on the platforms lay, seldom exceeded five feet eight inches, and in some cases it did not exceed four feet. The men were chained two and two

together by their hands and feet, and were chained also by means of ring-bolts, which were fastened to the deck. They were confined in this manner at least all the time they remained upon the coast, which was from six weeks to six months, as it might happen. Their allowance consisted of one pint of water a day to each person, and they were fed twice a day with yams and horse-beans. After meals they jumped up in their irons for exercise. This was so necessary for their health, that they were whipped if they refused to do it. And this jumping had been termed dancing.

'They were usually fifteen and sixteen hours below deck out of the twenty-four. In rainy weather they could not be brought up for two or three days together. If the ship was full, their situation was then distressing. They sometimes drew their breath with anxious and laborious efforts, and died of suffocation. With respect to their health in these voyages, the mortality, where the African constitution was the strongest, or on the windward coast, was only about five in a hundred. In thirty-five voyages, an account of which was produced, about six in a hundred was the average number lost. But this loss was still greater at Calabar and Bonny, which were the greatest markets for slaves. This loss, too, did not include those who died, either while the vessels were lying upon the coast, or after their arrival in the West Indies, of the disorders which they had contracted upon the voyage. Three and four in a hundred had been known to die in this latter case.

'But besides these facts, which were forced out of the witnesses by means of the cross examination which took place, they were detected in various falsehoods. They were found also guilty of a wilful concealment of such facts, as they knew, if communicated, would have invalidated their own testimony. I was instrumental in detecting them on one of these occasions myself. When Mr. Dalzell was examined, he was not wholly unknown to me. My Liverpool muster-roll told me that he had lost fifteen seamen out of forty in his last voyage. This was a sufficient ground to go upon; for generally, where the mortality of the seamen has been great, it may be laid down that the mortality of the slaves has been considerable also. I waited patiently till his evidence was nearly closed, but he had then made no unfavourable statements to the House. I desired, therefore, that a question might be put to him, and in such a manner that he might know that they who put it, had got a clue to his secrets. He became immediately embarrassed. His voice faltered. He confessed with trembling, that he had lost a third of his sailors in his last voyage. Pressed hard immediately by other questions, he then acknowledged that he had lost one hundred and twenty or a third of his slaves also. But would he say that these were all he had lost in that voyage? No: twelve others had perished by an accident, for they were drowned. But were no others lost besides the one hundred and twenty and the twelve? None, he said, upon the voyage, but between twenty and thirty before he left the coast. Thus this champion of the merchants, this advocate for the health and hap-

piness of the slaves in the middle passage, lost nearly a hundred and sixty of the unhappy persons committed to his superior care, in a single voyage!

In the first chapter of his second volume, we find Mr. Clarkson again on his travels to procure further evidence to promote the views of the abolitionists. In this chapter he mentions the striking difference which he discovered in the mortality which prevailed among the crews of the ships employed in the slave trade and of those which traded to Newfoundland:

‘On a comparison with the slave trade,’ says the author, ‘two vessels to Africa would destroy more seamen than eighty-three sailing to Newfoundland. There was this difference also to be noted, that the loss in the one trade was generally by the weather or by accident, but in the other by cruel treatment or disease; and that they, who went out in a declining state of health in the one, came home generally recovered, whereas they, who went out robust in the other, came home in a shattered condition.’

Thus the trade, which its advocates, when pressed for arguments, would sometimes represent as the nursery, was in fact the grave, of seamen. It was, indeed, the charnel-house of the freeman as well as the slave.

In 1790 Mr. Clarkson made a journey to Paris in order to interest some of the friends of freedom in that city in favour of the abolition. At the house of the Marquis de la Fayette, Mr. C. tells us, that he met the deputies of colour, who had just arrived from St. Domingo.

‘They were six in number, of a sallow or swarthy complexion, but yet it was not darker than that of some of the natives of the south of France. They were already in the uniform of the Parisian national guards, and one of them wore the cross of St. Louis. They were men of genteel appearance and modest behaviour. They seemed to be all well informed, and of a more solid cast than those which I was in the habit of seeing daily in this city. The account which they gave of themselves was this: the white people of St. Domingo, consisting of less than ten thousand persons, had deputies then sitting in the National Assembly. The people of colour greatly exceeded the whites in number. They amounted to thirty thousand, and were generally proprietors of lands. They were equally free by law, with the former, and paid their taxes to the mother-country in an equal proportion. But in consequence of having sprung from slaves they had no legislative power, and moreover were treated with great contempt. Believing that the mother country was going to make a change in its political constitution, they had called a

meeting in the island, and this meeting had deputed them to repair to France, and to desire the full rights of citizens, or that the free people of colour might be put on an equality with the whites.'

They said that

'the slave-trade was the parent of all the miseries in St. Domingo, not only on account of the cruel treatment it occasioned to the slaves, but on account of the discord which it constantly kept up between the whites and people of colour, in consequence of the hateful distinctions it introduced. These distinctions could never be obliterated while it lasted. Indeed, both the trade and the slavery must fall before the infamy now fixed upon a skin of colour, could be so done away that whites and blacks could meet cordially and look with respect upon one another. They had it in their instructions, in case they should obtain a seat in the assembly, to propose an immediate abolition of the slave trade and an immediate amelioration of the state of slavery also, with a view to its final abolition in fifteen years.'

Mirabeau had determined to introduce the measure into the assembly, and Mr. Clarkson furnished him with those details respecting the trade, which it was necessary for him to know.

'I sent him,' says Mr. Clarkson, 'a letter every other day for a whole month; which contained from sixteen to twenty pages. He usually acknowledged the receipt of each. Hence many of his letters came into my possession. These were always interesting on account of the richness of the expressions they contained. Mirabeau even in his ordinary discourse was eloquent.'

Mr. Clarkson gives the following account of Brissot :

'Brissot was a man of plain and modest appearance. His habits, contrary to those of his countrymen in general, were domestic. In his own family he set an amiable example both as a husband and as a father. On all occasions he was a faithful friend. He was particularly watchful over his private conduct. From the simplicity of his appearance and the severity of his morals, he was called the Quaker; at least, in all the circles which I frequented. He was a man of deep feeling. He was charitable to the poor as far as his slender income permitted him. But his benevolence went beyond the usual bounds. He was no patriot in the ordinary acceptation of the word, for he took the habitable globe as his country, and wished to consider every foreigner as his brother.'

Mr. Clarkson left France without accomplishing the object of his mission. On his return he continued his research

for fresh witnesses to the cruelties of this abominable traffic. He gives in particular an interesting account of his indefatigable endeavours to discover an individual of whom he had accidentally heard, who had been present at the kidnapping of slaves along the banks of the rivers Calabar and Bonny :

' It was usual,' says Mr. C. ' when the slave ships lay there, (in the rivers Calabar and Bonny) for a number of canoes to go into the inland country. These went in a fleet ; there might be from thirty to forty armed natives in each of them. Every canoe also had a four or a six pounder (cannon) fastened to her bow. Equipped in this manner they departed, and they were usually absent from 8 to 14 days. It was said that they went to fairs, which were held on the banks of these rivers, and at which there was a regular show of slaves. On their return they usually brought down from eight hundred to a thousand of those for the ships. These lay at the bottom of the canoes ; their arms and legs having been first bound by the ropes of the country.'

The point which Mr. Clarkson wished to ascertain was how the slaves who were thus brought down these rivers were obtained ? From the opponents of the abolition he endeavoured in vain to procure a satisfactory answer to the question.

' But, on mentioning accidentally,' says Mr. Clarkson, ' the circumstances of the case to a friend, he informed me that he himself had been in company about a year before with a sailor, a very respectable looking man, who had been up these rivers. He had spent half an hour with him at an inn. He described his person to me. But he knew nothing of his name or of the place of his abode. All he knew was, that he was either going or that he belonged to some ship of war in ordinary ; but he could not tell at what port.

As Mr. Clarkson had no further clue to his search, it seemed almost desperate, but he was not to be deterred by common difficulties ; he resolved not to lose an evidence to such an important matter of fact, for want of the most diligent enquiry. He very considerably procured a permission from Sir C. Middleton, who was then comptroller of the navy, to visit every ship of war in ordinary in England, in order to find the man. Thus prepared Mr. Clarkson began his journey :

' I boarded,' says he, ' all the ships of war lying in ordinary at Deptford, and examined the different persons in each. From Deptford I proceeded to Woolwich, where I did the same. Thence I hastened to Chatham, and then, down the Medway, to Sheerness. I had now boarded above a hundred and sixty vessels of war. I had

found out two good and willing evidences among them. But I could gain no intelligence of him, who was the object of my search. From Chatham, I made the best of my way to Portsmouth-harbour. A very formidable task presented itself here. But the master's boats were ready for me; and I continued my pursuit. On boarding the *Pegase*, on the second day, I discovered a very respectable person in the gunner of that ship. His name was George Millar. He had been on board the *Canterbury* slave ship at the dreadful massacre at Calabar. He was the only disinterested evidence living, of whom I had yet heard. He expressed his willingness to give his testimony, if his presence should be thought necessary in London. I then continued my pursuit for the remainder of the day. On the next day, I resumed and finished it for this quarter. I had now examined the different persons in more than a hundred vessels in this harbour, but I had not discovered the person I had gone to seek.

* Matters now began to look rather disheartening, I mean as far as my grand object was concerned. There was but one other port left, and this was between two and three hundred miles distant. I determined however to go to Plymouth. I had already been more successful in this tour, with respect to obtaining general evidence, than in any other of the same length; and the probability was, that as I should continue to move among the same kind of people, my success would be in a similar proportion according to the number visited. These were great encouragements to me to proceed. At length, I arrived at the place of my last hope. On my first day's expedition I boarded forty vessels, but found no one in these who had been on the coast of Africa in the slave trade. One or two had been there in king's ships, but they had never been on shore. Things were now drawing near to a close; and, notwithstanding my success as to general evidence in this journey, my heart began to beat. I was restless and uneasy during the night. The next morning, I felt agitated again between the alternate pressure of hope and fear; and in this state I entered my boat. The fifty-seventh vessel, which I boarded in this harbour was the *Melampus* frigate. One person belonging to it, on examining him in the captain's cabin, said he had been two voyages to Africa; and I had not long discoursed with him, before I found, to my inexpressible joy, that he was the man. I found too, that he unravelled the question in dispute precisely as our inferences had determined it. He had been two expeditions up the river to Calabar in the canoes of the natives. In the first of these, they came within a certain distance of the village. They then concealed themselves under the bushes, which hung over the water from the banks. In this position they remained during day-light. But at night they went up to it armed; and seized all the inhabitants, who had not time to make their escape. They obtained forty-five persons in this manner. In the second they were out eight or nine days when they made a similar attempt and with nearly similar success. They seized men, women, and children as they could find them in the huts. They then bound their arms and drove them before them to the canoes. The name of the person thus discovered on board the

Melampus, was Isaac Parker. On inquiry into his character from the master of the division, I found it highly respectable. I found also, afterwards, that he had sailed with Captain Cook, with great credit to himself, round the world. It was also remarkable that my brother on seeing him in London, when he went to deliver his evidence, recognised him as having served on board the Monarch man of war, and as one of the most exemplary men in that ship.

Mr. Clarkson gives an account of the different parliamentary debates which took place on the subject of the slave trade. This constitutes no small portion of his work, and it appears to us by far the most insipid and uninteresting part of the whole performance. Mr. Clarkson might in a few pages have given a clear and luminous view of the legislative proceedings respecting the trade, without telling us that Mr. Fox got up, or that Mr. Pitt sat down; that one gentleman said, and another observed; that a third rose up; that a fourth desired to say a few words; that a fifth stated that he had maturely considered the subject; that the Chancellor of the Exchequer said he should be happy if he thought the circumstances of the case were such as to enable them to proceed, &c. that Mr. Martin desired to say a few words only; that Mr. Rolle said, he had received instructions from his constituents, &c. that Mr. Wilberforce rose up in the House; that this said Mr. Wilberforce rose up in the Commons; that Mr. Wilberforce concluded a speech which lasted three hours and a half; that Lord Penrhyn rose; and that Mr. Gascoigne did the same; that Mr. Burke got up; that Mr. Pitt thanked his honourable friend, Mr. Wilberforce; that Sir William Young said, and that Mr. Fox observed; that Mr. (now Lord) Grenville would not detain the House; that Mr. Martin stated, &c. that Mr. William Smith would not detain the House long at that hour; that soon after this the House broke up; that Mr. Wilberforce moved the order of the day; that Mr. Alderman Sawbridge immediately arose; that Mr. Wilberforce replied; that Mr. Pitt observed; that Mr. Fox also observed; that Alderman Sawbridge maintained; and that Alderman Newnham was certain; that Alderman Watson maintained; that Mr. Molyneux rose up; that this called up Sir William Dolben and Sir Charles Middleton; that Sir William Dolben was put into the chair; that Mr. Tierney made a motion; that Mr. William Smith remarked; that Sir William Dolben rose to state; that Mr. Milnes declared; that Mr. Wilberforce made a short reply; that Colonel Tarleton repeated his arguments; that Mr. Milbank would only just observe; that Mr. Dundas rose again, &c. &c. &c.—

All this *important* information may do very well to fill the vacant columns of those newspapers from which Mr. Clarkson has thus extracted it with more fidelity than judgment ; but it appears to us to be totally superfluous in his work, and not very compatible with the dignity of history. We repeat that Mr. Clarkson might, in a few pages, have exhibited the general complexion, spirit, and substance of the debates on the slave trade, which would have been much more agreeable and instructive, than the tedious and common-place details which he has thrown together ; which, if they swell the actual bulk, make a great deduction from the literary merit of his work. Mr. Clarkson should have spurned not only the reality but have carefully avoided even the appearance of any book-making artifice. By this means all the matter of any interest or moment which he has spread out into two volumes might with the utmost facility have been comprised in one.

We cannot bestow any high praise on the style of this history. It presents some few instances of strength, but none of elegance. Mr. Clarkson does not often attempt to be eloquent, but when he does, he usually fails for want of taste. The two following sentences, in which he is speaking of the death of Mr. Fox, will be a sufficient proof of this :

‘ Nor is it improbable if earthly scenes ever rise to view at that awful crisis *and are perceptible*, that it (the abolition of the slave-trade) might have occupied his mind in the last moment of his existence. Then indeed would joy ineffable, from a conviction of having prepared the way for rescuing millions of human beings from misery, have attended the spirit on its departure from the body ; and then also would this spirit most of all purified when in the contemplation of peace, good will, and charity upon earth, be in the fittest state on *gliding from its earthly cavern to commune with the endless ocean of benevolence and love.*’

In this passage, in which the author evidently endeavours to elevate his diction to the dignity of the subject, the discriminating reader will notice instances of tautology, of awkward construction, and of coarse and ill assorted imagery. But this is a work to which the inherent importance of the subject will attract readers, whatever may be the blemishes of the style, or the defects of taste in the composition.

ART. III.—*A Letter to his Royal Highness the Prince of Wales; with a Sketch of the Prospect before him, Appendix and Notes.* By W. A. Miles, Esq. 8vo. Bell. 1808.

THE present work contains a good deal of important matter, but of which the greater part has no very close connection with the professed object of the letter.—Mr. Miles, who is an entire stranger to us, appears to be a man of strong and ardent feelings, which are often warmly and forcibly expressed.—He has seen a good deal; and he has evidently reflected much on what he has seen.—He is well acquainted not only with the external occurrences but with many of the internal movements of that period of our history, which is comprised in the administration of Mr. Pitt; and particularly with the part of it which is contemporaneous with the commencement and early progress of the French revolution. His personal acquaintance with some of the actors in that turbulent æra, and some communications of importance with which he was himself intrusted, have enabled him to throw light on several transactions, which have been perplexed by opposite statements and involved by the arts of faction in a studied obscurity.

In the beginning of his letter to the Prince, Mr. Miles describes and reprobates the political system, which has been uniformly prosecuted through the present reign. In this system Mr. Miles seems to descry a deliberate propensity to abridge the liberties of the subject, and to impair that freedom which constitutes the essence of the constitution. This system the prince is of course very vigorously exhorted to relinquish, and to exert his influence in restoring the constitution to its pristine beauty and strength.

‘It cannot be too strongly impressed on your mind,’ says Mr. Miles, addressing His Royal Highness, ‘that the complete restoration of the constitution to that state and condition in which it was confided to your ancestors will be your best security for the perfect enjoyment of the splendid inheritance to which you are entitled. That your mind, Sir, is well impressed with this important truth is no longer doubted; your loyalty to the country is unquestionable; and the people may be fully convinced that they have nothing to apprehend from your government, whenever you ascend the throne of your ancestors. The reverence in which you are acknowledged to hold the genuine principles of that constitution of which you are the hereditary guardian, and the aversion you have expressed at every abuse of power levelled at the liberties of the people, in whose hap-

piness it is said you feel an interest too warm to have its sincerity suspected, authorize the hope your country would willingly entertain, that when, in the course of nature, the sovereignty of these realms descends to your Royal Highness, you will prove yourself to be in the true and most unlimited sense of the word — A PATRIOT KING.'

Mr. Miles deduces the *original evil* of the present reign from the malignant influence of Lord Bute, by which the mind of a great personage is supposed to have been imbued with those high notions of the right divine of kings, which proved so unfortunate to the Stuarts.

'Young in empire,' says Mr. Miles, 'and little versed in the duties of a chief magistrate, George the third assumed the reins of government, with a mind warped by the prejudices of his preceptor, who firmly believed that kings are infallible and omnipotent; under this mischievous delusion, and incensed to find the capacity and principles of his favourite arraigned, he unfortunately entered into all the pitiful resentments of Lord Bute, and making the cause of the Minister his own, incurred an odium due only to his Lordship, and experienced in a disgraceful contest with one of his subjects (Mr. Wilkes) the mortification of a defeat.'

To the spirit of Lord Bute, which like an evil genius hovered round the throne, and influenced the measures of the cabinet long after he himself had ceased to take any ostensible part in public affairs, may be ascribed the impolitic contest with America; which was undertaken with a view of subjugating that continent, and the no less impolitic rupture with France, the real object of which was to reinstate the ancient despotism. Mr. Miles says that the war with France was resolved on as early as 1791, when 'the revolution had scarcely peeped over the Boulevards of Paris,' and that Mr. Pitt was authoritatively told, that he *must war with France or resign*. Mr. Pitt, though he must have been conscious of his own incapacity for conducting a war, yet preferred the retention of his place to every other consideration.

'The pigmy ambition of Mr. Pitt,' says Mr. Miles, 'soared no higher than to office.' The book of vacancies was far more important in his estimation than the interest of the empire or the destiny of nations.'

Mr. Miles seems to have formed a very correct estimate of the character and the virtue of Mr. Pitt,

'Having falsified' says he, 'all those professions by which he had, in the commencement of his parliamentary career, obtained the popularity which floated him into power; as reserved and phlegmatic as he was imperious, it was not likely he would participate in that generous warmth, which the country, so much to its credit, openly avowed on beholding twenty-five millions of their fellow-creatures released from the shackles of a government confessedly arbitrary, although its tyranny had been moderated by the prevalence of milder manners, and happily restricted in the exercise of undefined authority, to something like a decent resemblance with the few governments, in which personal property, fenced and secured by positive laws, have nothing to apprehend from the caprice or injustice of sovereigns or their ministers. The fact is, that what had, in the first instance, thrown the whole nation, as it were, into a delirium of joy, appears to have bewildered and stupified its minister. He alone seemed insensible not only to the grandeur of an event, which promised happiness to millions, but to the magnitude of its consequences. The first distinct impression it appears to have made on his mind, was not far removed from that which is felt by those who think themselves at full liberty to plunder a house in flames. Mr. Pitt's views, with respect to France, were precisely of this description. They had no greater latitude. Instead of contemplating that extraordinary occurrence as a new epoch in the annals of mankind, he beheld only the petty warfare of contending factions, in which he felt himself so perfectly at home, that he fancied he was able to aggravate their personal squabbles into civil feuds, beneficial to his country. He only looked to the uses to be derived at the moment from the internal confusion in France, and vainly imagined that his talent for intrigue could be displayed as successfully abroad, as it had unfortunately been exercised at home. An able statesman would have taken a far different view of an event, sufficiently awful in the commencement, to have awakened far better sentiments in our public councils, if Mr. Pitt could have looked beyond the emoluments and patronage of office. A statesman with a correct and comprehensive mind, would have examined that great event *dans tout son étendu*. He would have looked at it, not only as it affected the immediate interests of the country in which it blazed, but as to the effect it might have on surrounding nations, at a distant period, and on the general fortunes of mankind, dispersed throughout the habitable globe. He might have foreseen, that whenever the science, the genius, and passions, of an enlightened and enterprising people, are called into full activity from the obscurity and silence in which despotism, always jealous, always trembling for its existence, had held them immured for centuries; their force and influence on the laws, manners, and happiness of the civilized world, must be considerable.

- 'These were, however, objects, if not beyond the capacity of Mr. Pitt to estimate, at least of too little import to engage his attention.

Compelled to war with France or resign, he felt less difficulty in pledging himself to oppose the progress of the Revolution : and, unacquainted as he was with the force and resources of the enemy, and even ignorant of his genius and character, he precipitated the crisis which has consigned his memory to eternal reproach, and sealed perhaps, the ruin of his country. Looking solely to the preservation of what he had acquired by intrigue, he entered into all the rash and inconsiderate councils of the man*, who became, as it were, a focus, in which were concentrated all the wild and wicked projects of the most artful of the emigrants, distributed in every direction throughout the whole Continent of Europe, for the foul purpose of stimulating foreign powers to carry war and desolation into the very bosom of that country they had the baseness to desert. Animated by revenge, they paid no regard to facts, circumstances, or consequences ; and while Mr. Pitt fancied he was acting for himself and from himself, he was little else than the blind instrument of men, who, when they found their greater projects resisted, never failed to make a market of their pretended loyalty to the sovereign they had betrayed. Amongst these were to be found men of rank, who ought to have remained attached to their country, and to have shared her fortunes ; and though they might have been driven for the moment by the tempests of the times from their native land, they had no colourable pretext for becoming traitors at once to the nation they had abandoned, and to the nation that maintained them. To this description of emigrants, our most pernicious enemies, whose object in calling the world to arms was merely to recover what they had deservedly lost, the Minister gave his ready confidence ; but perfectly understanding the value of his welcome, and aware of his motives, they paid him in coin and laughed at him.—He was their dupe from first to last, with the additional mortification of finally knowing that he had been, throughout, imposed upon. Nor was Mr. Pitt alone the victim of a credulity which was in a manner epidemic—his colleagues gave an implicit credence to every tale, however absurd, that was brought them, and espoused the cause of emigrants, from a vanity as contemptible as their own ; whenever Parliament calls for an account of the issues made to Mr. Wickham, while in Switzerland, for foreign subsidies and other purposes, your Royal Highness will then learn with equal surprise and indignation, the amount of British gold paid to a banditti of adventurers, under the stale pretext of accomplishing a counter-revolution in favour of the banished family.'

In a note under the above passage, Mr. Miles remarks that ' Mr. Wickham drew for something more than SEVEN HUNDRED THOUSAND POUNDS during his mission in Switzerland.'—We have no reason to believe that there is any

* The late Mr. Burke.

exaggeration in this statement. It is probable from the pamphlet of M. Fauche-Borel, which we reviewed in our last number, that the sum was rather greater than less than the calculation of Mr. Miles. For M. Fauche-Borel shows that needy and profligate adventurers were constantly applying to the English government for money to bring about a counter-revolution in France, and that much of the money which was thus obtained, instead of being appropriated to its object, was embezzled by the unprincipled traitors through whose hands it passed.—Thus, according to the account of M. Fauche Borel, though large sums were distributed to different agents in order to influence the election of the *new third* of the legislative body in favour of the Bourbons, those departments, on which the largest sums had been lavished, sent deputies the most adverse to the exiled family.

At p. 71, Mr. Miles mentions a report, which if it be true cannot be too generally known, and if false, too soon or too universally exploded.

‘It,’ says he, meaning the constitution, ‘has been withering for something more than forty years, and those who seem to derive a guilty pleasure in contemplating its decay, who have most contributed to impair its antique massive strength, and most defaced the beauty of its elegant exterior are for immediately extinguishing all that remains of what our ancestors wrested from the perfidious Charles, who perished, as he deserved, on a scaffold; and from his yet more wicked and contemptible son James the second. Your royal highness is yet to learn, perhaps, that a project is widely suspected to *suspend the constitution*.’

‘I quote,’ says Mr. Miles, ‘the precise words of the champions of the measure in contemplation.’ If such a measure be in contemplation, and if the champions of it be known to Mr. Miles, he ought to have mentioned their names, that they may be known to the country, and universally execrated as traitors of the worst species that ever appeared among us. For what is it that these persons mean by the awful words, ‘suspend the constitution?’ Do they mean to enable the king to govern without parliament, and to tax the people without obtaining the consent of their representatives? This would be to suspend the constitution. Do they mean to abolish the trial by jury, and to destroy the liberty of the press? This would be to suspend the constitution of which they are essential parts. But whatever may be the precise meaning of the words, it is clear that they imply a nearer assimilation of the complex form of the British government to a simple despotism.

'It is pretended,' says Mr. Miles, 'that nothing short of rendering the king as absolute as Bonaparte can enable his majesty to call out the energies necessary for the salvation of the country.'

We know that Mr. Reeves asserted in a pamphlet which appeared in 1795, and which certainly was not written without a view to some ulterior object, that '*parliaments owed their existence to the bounty of the sovereign, and that the king could legally carry on the government without them.*'

If war was resolved on by the British cabinet in 1791, and if Mr. Pitt acquiesced in the intimation of the court, that he must *either war or resign*, then Mr. Miles may justly ascribe the origin of the war itself rather to this country than to France, and rather to Mr. Pitt than to the national convention. The war, which was undertaken in 1793, was the consequence of the resolution that was formed in 1791. In 1793, says Mr. Miles,

'France had no choice left her. Irritated by the perfidy and insults of foreign courts, harrassed by traitors within, who under foreign auspices, '*fooled her in the delirium of her convulsion to, the very top of her bent*;' perplexed and bewildered by the innumerable underhand projects perpetually forming by the ill-advised king and queen, who vainly hoped to recover the authority they had lost; menaced with a civil war by the intrigues carrying on at the Tuilleries, at Vienna, at Berlin, Petersburg and London, through the vile agency of a discarded nobility, leagued with a banditti of priests and impostors, the convention had no resource from rebellion but in boldly throwing away the scabbard and trusting the fortunes of the revolution to the sword.'

'The war,' says Mr. Miles, 'being resolved upon in 1791, fixes this country with the guilt of aggression—the attempts made in 1792 and 1793 by Messieurs Chauvelin, Maret, the two Mourgues, father and son, Noel, and Reinhard, to prevent hostilities, in which these gentlemen had recourse to my agency, prove that France was desirous to avoid, even down to February, 1793, a rupture with this country—she offered us the price of peace, to rescind the offensive decrees of the 19th November, and of December 1792; and to engage that Spain should open all her markets in South America to our manufactures: I was authorized to state, that whenever Great Britain was disposed to enter into an alliance with France, the latter was ready to open a negotiation with the former for that purpose. But when these concessions were made, Ministers insisted on the Scheld remaining in a state of interdiction, under the pretext that Holland would be ruined if the port of Antwerp* was opened.

* The Dutch, who were alone interested in keeping the waters of the Scheld stagnate, never pressed us at the time to make it a *sine qua non* to our neutrality; but we wanted an excuse to quarrel, and found one, as Hoispouin rebellion.

On this point, in which their High Mightinesses took no active part, nor did they wish to plunge this country into war, the two nations split. Monsieur Chauvelin, in a very indecent manner, was ordered by Lord Grenville to quit the country.—Monsieur Maret, who crossed to Dover as the other was crossing to Calais, was refused an audience on his arrival in London, and also dismissed, without being admitted to an interview, or allowed to enter into an explanation of the points in dispute. In the *Memoirs* of my own *Times*, comprehending a space of thirty years, which I am preparing for the press, it is my intention to enter fully into the history of the French Revolution, and to do ample justice to the integrity, the zeal, and pacific dispositions of the various confidential agents from the Executive Council, to whom I have referred in this publication, and who were sent from Paris to London in 1792 and 1793, for the express purpose of preserving a good understanding between the two governments; but as the present occasion offers a fair opportunity of mentioning them as they deserve, and as this work goes forth to the world authenticated by my name, I think it due to Mons. Maret, Mons. Reinhard, and Mons. Noel to declare, that their unremitting efforts to prevent a rupture, are not the less entitled to the esteem of both nations for having been unsuccessful. It was the most earnest wish of these gentlemen, as also of Mons. Morgue, and his son Scipion, who exerted themselves for the same laudable purpose, to have brought both governments to that favourable and amicable temper towards each other, which might have ultimately led them to consolidate, by a treaty of alliance, their mutual interests—that they came to England for such purposes, is evident from their correspondence—that they professed such sentiments, and were grieved and disappointed at the failure of their efforts, are truths which I am bound to acknowledge; and under these impressions they left England.*

We never before heard of the following fact, which is of so much importance that we cannot withhold it from the reader, as it so strongly manifests the different disposition of the two governments at the commencement of the war.

* The war, says Mr. Miles, 'determined upon in 1791, announced itself on the 8th of February, 1793, after various efforts on the part of France to avert so dire a calamity. Towards the end of the following month (March) an offer was made through me to Government by the friends of limited monarchy, then known by the name of Moderates, to march an army from the Alps of France to Paris, and to proclaim the son of Louis the XVIth, then alive, King of France, provided Great Britain would declare herself contented with the constitution which Louis the XVIth had sworn to respect, and as a pledge of her sincerity, procure the release of Mons. De la Fayette and his friends, most shamefully as well as impolitically detained, first by Prussia, and afterwards by Austria. It was pro-

posed to establish a form of government similar to our own in which the people should have a security against the encroachments of the Crown in the responsibility of its Ministers. The party in favour of a limited monarchy was at that time considerable in France; many of them in office: their influence and resources were great—they had founderies in the mountains where they cast cannon—all they wanted was the countenance of Great Britain to re-establish the monarchy—they required no subsidies, no clothing, no ammunition, nor even money to defray the expenses of their journey back—they sought refuge in our justice, from the fury of the Jacobins and the relentless rage of the red-hot Royalists. It would have been wisdom to have listened to their offer, and especially as they candidly stated, that with all their aversion to republicanism, they would prefer it to an absolute monarchy, and trusted they would not be driven to adopt an alternative so repugnant to their habits and principles. I gave their memorial to the Under-Secretary of State*. The Cabinet was then sitting; I saw it carried in; but as no notice whatever was taken of it, it is fair to presume that his majesty's Ministers moved the *previous question*, and passed to the order of the day.

Again says Mr. Miles,

'About the 4th of February 1794, I received a letter from Paris, pressing me to use my credit, if I had any, with Mr. Pitt, in favour of peace, adding, that it was the determination of the Convention to expel us, at all events, the Low Countries, the ensuing campaign, and that they would have 200,000 men in Flanders if necessary. I transmitted the letter immediately to Mr. Pitt, and he almost as immediately sent a gentleman to me high in his confidence, to request I would not send him any more French intelligence. The message certainly surprised me—it did more—because I thought it was his duty, as Minister, to receive intelligence; it was for him to judge how far it was entitled to credit, or proper to be acted upon; and this I told his friend in nearly the same words. The correctness of my information from Paris in January 1794, was completely verified at the conclusion of the year, by the total expulsion of the British and other foreign troops from the Austrian Netherlands, and by the subsequent reduction of Holland. The specimen of the "*wisdom and vigour*" in our public Councils, which the Corporation of London so much extolled in their late Address to the King, offers to Your Royal Highness much matter for useful though painful reflection, and proves that the capacity for conducting the war bore no kind of proportion to the zeal for entering into it. A very favourable opportunity for terminating it occurred when the Dutch,

* Mr. Aust, Foreign Department.

disgusted with a contest into which they had been forced, withdrew from the confederacy, and negotiated a separate peace for themselves—at that period the French would have consented to a general peace. This disposition was communicated to the Foreign Secretary without delay.—It was received—contemned—and spurned. Early in January 1795, I received a letter from M. Barthelmy, the French Minister at Basle, informing me the Convention was ready to treat with Great Britain for peace, on terms consistent with the honour, the dignity, and interests of the French nation. The importance of the information induced me to disregard the prohibition I had received from Mr. Pitt, the preceding year, to send him any more French intelligence, and I lost no time in communicating it—I sent a copy of it to the late Duke of Leeds, aware of his being in favour of peace, and in the hope, that, though he no longer formed a part of the administration, he might see Mr. Pitt, and urge the propriety of sending me to Basle, whither I offered to go, on having only my expenses paid, to ascertain the terms on which France would treat.*

‘ Here was another very favourable occasion for terminating the war, and at an epoch when Europe, comparatively speaking, had suffered no material injury—Spain was entire—Italy the same—Austria* and Prussia in full vigour—the Germanic empire untouched. Could reason have subdued obstinacy, these states would not have to lament their impotency or their ruined fortunes, and their total inability to recover their former consequence; but, Sir, the extent of the evil is yet a secret to us—It may not be very easy to ascertain what we might have gained by accepting the invitation to peace, offered to us twice in 1794; but we are certainly in a condition most accurately to estimate what we have lost, and to form no very improbable conjecture what we may yet suffer, if the nation, “*confiding in the wisdom, the firmness, and vigour of His Majesty’s councils,*” should allow the war to be continued with such indelible marks of incapacity for conducting it: and with yet the stronger and far more melancholy evidence staring us in the face, that every year, nay, Sir, every month, week, day, hour, and almost every minute, swells the proud triumphs of our adversary, and renders him as invulnerable to our attacks, as he is superior to our malice. I should have supposed that Ministers, taught wisdom by experience, would have condescended to relax in the rigour of their demands, and giving up the “*indemnity for the past,*” have gladly compounded with having “*security for the future.*” I frequently forewarned Mr. Pitt, from 1790 to 1793, what the issue of the rupture would be—I told him that France would rise a phoenix from her ashes—that if he warred with her, he would ruin his country: a part

* With the exception of the Low Countries.

of my prediction has been realized—it is for Your Royal Highness to decide upon the probability of what has not yet been verified.’

When Mr. Miles wrote his letter to the prince, Spain had not begun her bold attempt to throw off the yoke of France, or perhaps Mr. M. would have seen reason to alter some of his inferences with respect to the fitness of any *present* offer to treat with France, and to the impossibility of reducing the power of Bonaparte on the continent. ‘A peace with France,’ says Mr. Miles ‘followed by an alliance, would ensure the repose of the world for ever; but a peace that has not an alliance for its object, will be fallacious, and lead to worse consequences than war. The moment is favourable. Leave to France the task of arranging the continent of Europe, of which she is become the absolute mistress; her claim—the right of conquest. It is precisely the same as that we have to Oude, or to any of the other Asiatic provinces we have seized or made tributary.’

‘To wrest dominion from France by force, is beyond our strength; to dispossess her by intrigue, beyond our cunning. The *status quo ante bellum* ceased to be a basis for future negotiation when the different powers of Europe ceased to respect its principle. Those, who are the first to violate forms and principles, have little right to complain if the examples they give of injustice should be improved upon. The fate of Europe deserves our notice no farther than as it may affect our own safety, and her sufferings would have no claim to our commiseration had we not been instrumental in misleading her.’

Before the recent revolution in Spain we agreed with Mr. Miles and Mr. Whitbread in the propriety of offering to treat for peace with France, thinking that it was as foolish as it was vain to attempt any longer to destroy her power or to rescue Europe from her dominion. But the new and *regenerate aspect* of Spain has incited us to cherish the hope, that that people will be able to shake off the yoke of dependence upon France, that the other nations of Europe will imitate her glorious example, and that Bonaparte will no longer be master of the continent. But we think that the political advice of Mr. Miles was well adapted to the state of affairs at the time he wrote; for he must have possessed more than human sagacity if he could have foreseen that the deliverance of Europe would proceed from the superstition, ignorance, and despotism that seemed to have fixed their abode in Spain and Portugal.

Among other curious particulars in this work of Mr. Miles, we cannot refrain from extracting the following :

' The abolition of titles in France took place on the motion of Monsieur Matthew de Montmorency, a member of the National Assembly in 1790, not for the purpose, as Mr. Burke asserted, of destroying the privileged orders, on which that name reflected more lustre than any other, but for the purpose of rescuing the ancient nobility from being confounded with the vile mixture of self-created counts and marquisses with whom Europe was overrun, and whose adventures brought disgrace on the aristocracy, and on the nation itself—the most effectual way to get rid of this mob of titles, was to dissolve and melt the whole into the general mass, *de les refondre*, with a view in due time to restore that rank purified from the innumerable swarms which had been foisted into it from the bar, from commerce, finance, and the pavé; but the turn which the French revolution unfortunately took, on being forced out of its natural and original course, by the perfidious, and cowardly conduct of the different courts of Europe, prevented the accomplishment of this well-intentioned measure, and exposed the noble author of the proposed reform, to all that obloquy which Mr. Burke, from the worst of motives, so copiously lavished on those whom he deserted or opposed.—Whether the wisdom of the measure corresponded with the purity of the design, is unnecessary to enquire. The fact, as stated, was well known to Mr. Burke when he accused the parties concerned of a mean and criminal renunciation of their birth-rights; but calumny loses all its atrocity in a mind insensible to remorse, and misrepresentations never had any thing very offensive to the morals of that gentleman, whenever it suited his purpose to resort to them.

' It is from Monsieur de Montmorency I hold this fact: I knew him, and it is a justice due to the integrity of that insulted nobleman, to rescue him from the slander of a man who never spared the throne or the cottage, whenever it suited his malice or his interest to abuse either.'

We are happy to find Mr. Miles, in the following extract, doing justice to the probity, the disinterestedness, and the patriotism of Mr. Fox; while it shews that Mr. Burke was paid for his Reflections on the French revolution not only by the government of this country, but even by the old corrupt court of France :

' It is impossible that the Duke of Portland and his associates can ever forget the last meeting they had with Mr. Fox and his friends, when they met by appointment for the last time at Devonshire-house: it was at that last sad interview; at that fatal meeting of an opposition, formidable from their numbers, and with the soli-

tary exception of their nominal leader, formidable in point of talents, that the credit of the only constitutional check on the despotism of the crown was extinguished—the parliamentary opposition, (the honorary guardians of the constitution), fell on that memorable occasion, to rise perhaps no more, and with it fell the pride, the glory, and the best defence of Britain. Ministers from that moment felt themselves unfettered by restraints, unawed by the controul of superior talents, and by dread of public shame, which sometimes holds the place of virtue. Many of those who were present at this meeting of the Old and New Whigs, as they call themselves, will do justice to the enlarged and comprehensive mind of Mr. Fox, to the correct views he had of the probable effects of the French revolution, and to his exquisite sensibility on finding himself compelled to relinquish the endearing ties of long-established friendships, or of becoming an accomplice in the ruin of his country. He preferred his duty to his interest, and by the virtue of that resolve amply atoned for all the political errors of his former life. Mr. Burke, indeed, triumphed for the moment, but it was only to render his fall more conspicuous, and his disgrace eternal—even a vagrant, fugitive priesthood, who hailed him in the plenitude of his borrowed glory, as their Messiah, disdain to chant hymns to his memory, and with all his blind devotion to their frauds and superstition, would not honour him with a mass to ensure his salvation. It will be difficult to ascertain at this period, what that personage received from the remnant of the French court, during the short interval of its existence after the destruction of the Bastile; but if any credit is due to the questionable testimony of M. Calonne, the sum that Mr. Burke received from the French court, more than trebled what was derived from the sale of his *Reflections on the French Revolution*, 17,000 copies of which were said by Dodsley to have been sold. This extraordinary production, which did far greater credit to the eloquence of the author, than to his judgment, his character, or discretion, may be said to have sealed the destruction of Europe.—It gave a false bias to the informed and uninformed minds of those, who were to guide the public opinion, as well as to direct the public force of nations.—It was that book, so much in favour, where it should have been spurned, published the latter end of 1790, or early in 1791, that decided this country to war with unoffending France. The revolution was then in its infancy; it had announced nothing hostile to other nations, nothing offensive to their governments, nor any thing very criminal against its own.

The following account of the different pensions which Mr. Burke received from the English government, in addition to the sums which he derived from the old court of France, will demonstrate beyond the power of contradiction, that whatever might be the richness of his genius, it was debased by the most sordid selfishness.

' A List of Pensions granted to Mr. Burke.

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|---|---|
| <p>' 1200l. per annum chargeable on the Civil List for the lives of</p> | <p>{ Edmund Burke, Esq. and his Wife, and the survivor of them, by warrant, dated Sep. 29. 1795, and to commence from Jan. 5, 1793.</p> |
| <p>' 1160l. per annum, payable out of the 4½ per Cent. duties, for the lives of</p> | <p>{ Edmund Burke, Esq. Lord Royston, Anchtel Grey, Esq. and the survivor of them, by patent, dated Oct. 24, 1795, to commence July 24, 1793.</p> |
| <p>' 1340l. payable out of the 4½ per Cent. duties, for the lives of</p> | <p>{ The Princess Amelia, Lord Althorpe, and William Cavendish Esq. by patent, dated Oct. 29, 1795, to commence July 1793.</p> |

' All these pensions have a retrospect of nearly two years ; consequently the sum of 8520l. was paid immediately to Mr. Burke, and the second and third pensions were instantly realized into a sum total of something more than 30,000l. So that the French Revolution, which has proved a mischief to this country, was to Mr. Burke, as well as to others among us, a mine of wealth—but that gentleman always understood the making of bargains. At the time of the discussions on the Regency, when it was expected that event would take place, his rapacity was beyond all measurable bounds ; the Pay-office was destined for him, but on no account would he hear of a Joint Paymaster. He insisted upon the whole, and his clamours on that occasion are not yet forgotten by those who were privy to the transactions of those days.'

In p. 146—155, we find Mr. Miles arguing very forcibly against the policy of entrusting the awful power of making war to any individual. What he says on the subject is highly deserving the attentive perusal of the reader. Any future sovereign might acquire immortal honour to himself, and have his memory for ever enshrined in the affections of his subjects, if on his accession to the crown, he would cheerfully and gratuitously resign this invidious branch of the prerogative to his parliament. He might address both houses in the following language : This prerogative of making war has been transmitted to me from my ancestors, by whom the pages of history as well as your own experience will teach you that it has been often exercised ; but as I am anxious that my reign should be a reign of peace, I am determined not to retain a power, which, in a moment of in-

consideration, I may be tempted to abuse. The world has been too long and too often ravaged by the warlike propensities of princes. I have none of those propensities; but as I do not profess to be free from the imperfections of humanity, I cannot be certain that circumstances will never arise to excite them in my breast. But I will do all that I can to secure even myself against the wanton indulgence of desires so opposite to the welfare of my kingdom and to the general happiness of man. To you I resign for ever the power of making war; conscious that neither your interest nor your reason will ever suffer you to exercise it except on those occasions in which it is rendered necessary as a measure of self defence, by the injustice or the ambition of other states.

His present majesty acquired a great deal of popularity by a provision which tended to lessen the dependence of the judges on the crown; but this popularity would be nothing compared with that which any future sovereign might obtain by a *voluntary surrender* to the parliament of his right to make war. The prerogative of making war resolves itself into the privilege of shedding blood; and this privilege we, who profess the pacific doctrine of Christ, can never regard as one of the jewels in the crowns of kings. It is rather a loathsome appendage to the regalia of the sovereign; the removal of which would increase their lustre a hundred fold.

We should have been much better pleased with Mr. Miles's performance if he had been less bitter and sarcastic in his reflections on a nobleman, who was one of the secretaries of state during the first administration of Mr. Pitt, but who very generously refused to take any part in his second, because his sovereign was unwilling to admit Mr. Fox into the cabinet. On the death of Mr. Pitt, Lord Grenville certainly might, if he had pleased, have relinquished his new friends, and formed an administration in conjunction with Lord Hawksbury, &c. but he again magnanimously refused to take his seat in any cabinet from which Mr. Fox and his friends were excluded. During the short period of his administration, though Lord Grenville had not time to carry into effect the plans of salutary reform which he had projected with the friends of Mr. Fox, yet the abolition of the slave trade, the introduction of limited service in the army, combined with various economical retrenchments in the public expenditure, have, in our minds, not only made an ample atonement for any errors into which he might have been led during the early part of his political life, when the cabinet was swayed by Mr. Pitt, but constitute in themselves a stock

of merit which reflects no small splendour on his name. We do not contemplate Lord Grenville as the associate of Mr. Pitt, but as the friend of Mr. Fox, and as uniting his honest efforts with those of that great man, in a most perilous period, to save the liberties and the independence of his country. We do not think that errors which any man has renounced, that opinions which on mature reflection he has relinquished, or habits of action by which he is no longer governed, ought to be imputed to his blame, or recollected to his prejudice. This is neither consistent with candour nor with charity.

ART. IV.—*Observations on Aneurism and some Diseases of the Arterial System, by George Freer, Surgeon to the General Hospital near Birmingham. 4to. 1l. 1s. Printed by Knott and Lloyd, Birmingham. 1807.*

MR. Freer in his preface says

‘The following observations owe their birth to the case of J. Macdonald, on whom I performed the operation of tying the iliac artery for the cure of femoral aneurism, the first time, that I believe, it ever was performed with complete success ;’

and the whole was written before he had heard of Scarpa's work.

This book opens with some remarks on the pathology of arteries, and the means employed by nature in the suppression of hæmorrhagy.* The celebrated experiments of Dr. Jones are adduced to illustrate the doctrine that the arterial canal is not rendered impervious by obturation or the shutting up of the passage, solely by a clot: and he proves by experiments which he made himself upon horses, that when large arteries were compressed, the canal is closed not by effusion of coagulable lymph within the cavity, but about and within the coats of the artery, so as to press the sides together, and consequently interrupt the passage of the blood: and the corollary he derives from his experiments is, that in the cure of aneurism great advantage may be taken of this mode of compression.

Mr. Freer imagines that arteries are much oftener the seats of disease than has been hitherto suspected, and he gives instances of hydrothorax, and of general dropsy, in which after death the bodies were examined, and certain arteries

found inflamed. He also gives some valuable cases of what Burns calls spongoid inflammation, and Hey fungus hæmatoides, a disease which he himself ranks among the aneurisms of arteries of the surface and extreme parts. Of the aneurism of anastomosis of Mr. John Bell he gives the following description, and illustrates it with a good case. p. 34.

‘A small soft tumour made its appearance, containing a fluid which could be displaced by pressure; and by removing the pressure it was instantly filled again. It was attended with throbbing but not with pain. These tumours, if suffered to remain, gradually increase, and eventually burst, bleed profusely, and if not totally removed very soon destroy the patient by repeated bleedings.’

On varicose aneurisms, he follows the steps of Dr. William Hunter, and of this disease too he records an instructive case. All this is preparatory to the particular observations on aneurism, and being comprized in thirty-seven pages cannot be expected to be either recondite or minute: but although the matter is compressed into so small a compass, it is by no means deficient in perspicuity, and the remarks are practical and instructive.

‘Aneurism,’ says Mr. Freer, ‘is a disease of arteries, in which their muscular coat sometimes is dilated alone; but in general it is ruptured, and then forms a sac, bulging out from the ruptured portion of the coat, and gradually dilates all the other coats from the active pulsation of the artery itself; the sac during the progress of the disease being filled by a deposition of coagulable lymph, and the deposition going on until some vital function is interrupted, or the sac being no longer capable of dilatation, bursts. If this description or definition of aneurism be allowed, it does not admit of that distinction with which we set out, of aneurismal disease being divided into true and false; for it is always a disease, *sui generis*, whether the weakness of the arterial fibres be such as to dilate without rupture, or which is most frequent, to rupture, and form an aneurismal sac.’

Scarpa, a translation of whose treatise on aneurism was published subsequently to Mr. Hunter's book, has placed the formation of aneurism in a somewhat different point of view. This great anatomist has for many years considered the subject of aneurism profoundly, and dissected every aneurismatic patient that came in his way. The result of his inquiries is,

‘that aneurism, in whatever part of the body it is formed, and from whatever cause it arises, is never occasioned by dilatation, but by the rupture or ulceration of the internal and muscular coats of the ar-

tery, and consequently that these coats have not the smallest share in the formation of the aneurismal sac.' Scarpa's Preface (translation) page 12.

This, we believe, to be the truth, in spite of Mr. Freer's case of Mr. M. and his quotations from Lieutaud and Senac, and had he seen this book before the publication of his own, probably it would have been Mr. F.'s opinion also.

For the cure of aneurism, Mr. F. offers no internal remedies with any confidence, but for aneurisms of the extremities, the knife, the ligature, the compress, may all avail when their application is made with judgment and skill. He then takes a cursory view of the different aneurisms which have been found to affect the limbs, and the different methods which have been employed in their cure. This view, though cursory, is clear, and the methods of cure in some instances are improved. We particularly recommend his observations on axillary aneurism, and his proposed method of operation to the attention of the surgeon. These alone would entitle Mr. Freer to some reputation had he not claims of a higher kind, from having first performed with complete success the operation for femoral aneurism, by tying the external iliac artery. Our limits forbid the insertion of the whole case, and we will not diminish the interest of it by an abridgment. The operation was performed on the 4th of October, 1806, with one ligature and a common double knot on the external iliac artery. On the 19th of October the ligature came away, and the patient perfectly recovered. This is a triumphant example of the skill and the science of British surgery, and we cordially sympathize in the exulting remark of one of Mr. Freer's correspondents :

' that the capability of performing the most complex and difficult operations of surgery is not now confined to the metropolis and other great schools of surgery.' p. 92.

When incision is impracticable either on account of the diseased state of the artery, or of other causes, Mr. F. follows the method of Guattani, and recommends compression : and to illustrate its usefulness, he had copied some of the cases of that celebrated surgeon, and given some of his own. As a specimen of his manner, we insert this method of cure, and his reasoning upon it, as they are included in the following remarks, page 12 :

' Compression may be applied either on the aneurismal tumour
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itself, or upon the sound artery above it. In those cases where pressure has been hitherto applied, it has been upon the tumour itself; and though this mode of application has frequently been attended with success, it is by no means so likely to answer the intention of uniting the sides of the vessels as when used on the sound part of the artery. From the result of those experiments I made upon the radial artery of a horse I should recommend the pressure to be made upon the extremities, either by the assistance of Scufio's instrument, which is copied in Platner's Surgery, and given here in the margin, or in the following manner: First place a bandage moderately tight from one extremity of the limb to the other, then place a pad upon the artery a few inches above the tumour, that you may have a greater probability of its being in a sound state; then with a common tourniquet surrounding the limb, let the screw be fixed upon the pad, having previously secured the whole limb from the action of the instrument, by a piece of board wider than the limb itself, by which means the artery only will be compressed when the screw is tightened, the tourniquet should then be twisted till the pulsation in the tumour ceases. In a few hours, as by experiment upon the horse, the limb will become œdematous and swelled; the tourniquet may then be removed, and no stronger pressure will be required than what can easily be made with the pad and roller. The irritation produced by this mode of pressure, excites that degree of inflammation of the artery, which deposits coagulable lymph in the coats of the vessel, thickens them, diminishes the cavity, and eventually obstructs the passage of the blood.

‘Such are the practical advantages of compression, and when any portion of vital power remains, I know of no exception to its use.

‘All the soft parts of the body, as we have before observed, are elastic; they are capable of being stretched out, and they are capable of being contracted. Now an artery is composed of materials peculiarly contractile. In those experiments instituted for the purpose of ascertaining the power of contraction of arteries, it was found that the aorta of an ass was contracted, by gradually depriving the animal of all its blood, till the cavity was nearly closed, and the whole artery only resembled a cord not a canal. A power of contraction so great, admits in a contrary direction of an equal dilatation. By a force gradually applied, an artery is capable of being stretched into ten times its usual diameter.’

‘But, independently of mere elastic power, the functions of arteries predispose to the formation of certain diseases. As arteries are living and irritable canals, which suffer the constant permeation of a fluid, of course they are constantly acted upon by their contents. These contents may vary in their chemical constitution, as the arteries themselves in their degree of vital power or of health; but in all cases the canal will adapt its dimension to the quantity of its contents. If the fibre is infirm, it may be sooner torn. If it be torn or give way in any other mode, the part will have a tendency to

bulge. The impetus of the fluid passing along is equal against every fibre. The infirm or torn fibre makes less or no resistance: the artery there then begins to yield—each pulsation makes it yield more and more, till at last the tumour becomes visible, and an aneurism is formed.'

On the body of the aneurism itself compression can seldom if ever be useful, but it may be rendered positively so whensoever there is an opportunity of compressing the artery above the tumour, and by compression rendering its canal impervious. In recommending this practice, Mr. Freer has improved upon the principle of Guattani, and though he cannot lay claim to the merit of original discovery, still is the art of surgery greatly indebted to him for offering an extension of the former principle, and rendering the practice of compression more public, obviating when it can be obviated a dangerous operation, and at all events giving the chance of relief to the unhappy patient without a hazardous and painful operation. Independent of the case of femoral aneurism, on account of which this book was confessedly made, and for which it will always be valuable, we recommend it as a succinct and scientific account of some of the diseases of arteries, certainly not of all, and until the publication of the translation of the magnificent work of Scarpa, as the most systematical and instructive treatise on aneurism in our language.

ART. V.—*A Picture of Madrid: taken on the Spot: by Christian Augustus Fischer. Translated from the German. 6s. Mawman. 1808.*

THIS is a very lively picture of the locality, buildings, trade, manners, customs, amusements, and occupations of a capital, which late events have rendered highly interesting. M. Fischer appears to have been an attentive and accurate observer, and to have sketched what he saw on the spot while the original impressions were fresh and strong. Thus he renders the reader a spectator of the scene: and he often not only conveys the visible object to the perceptions of the reader, but the sensations which accompanied the view. The translation evinces marks of carelessness and precipitation; but it partakes in general of the *naïveté* and sprightliness of the original. The reader will not be displeased with the following lively delineation of the general physiognomy of the Spanish capital:

'I wake, 'tis now four o'clock in the morning! The whole broad street of *Alcala* is spread before me like an immense square—churches—palaces and convents:—at the further end the shady walks of the *Prado*—a grand sublime sight, baffling description.

'The matin bell announces the early mass—the streets become more animated. Veiled women in black, men in long brown cloaks with *redesillas* (wearing their hair in a kind of net-work hanging low down their back.) The doors of all the balconies open, and water is sprinkled out before every house.

'Now the goat-keepers with their little herds enter the gates, crying Milk! Milk! Goats milk! fresh and warm! Who will have any? There I see market women pass by with their asses loaded with vegetables, bakers with bread in carts made of Spanish reed, water-carriers and porters hastening to commence their day's work, while with a hoarse voice two consequential looking alguazils proclaim the thefts committed on the preceding night.

'By degrees all the warehouses, shops, and booths, are opened. The publicans (*taberneros*) expose their wine cups; the chocolate women get their pots ready; the water carriers begin to chaunt their "*Quien debe?*" (Who'll drink?) and the hackney coach and hackney chaise drivers, with the persons who let mules for hire, take their usual stands.

'Soon the whole street resounds with the various cries of numberless criers. Cod, white cod! Onions! Onions from Galicia! Walnuts! Walnuts, from Biscay! Oranges! Oranges, from Murcia! Hard smoked sau sages from Estramadura! Tomates! large tomates! Sweet citrons! Sweet citrons! Barley water! Ice water! Ice water! A new journal! a new journal! A new gazette! Water Melons! Long Malaga raisins! Olives, olives, from Seville! Milk! rolls! Milk, rolls, fresh and hot! Grapes! grapes! Figs, new figs! Pomegranates, pomegranates, from Valencia!

'It strikes ten; the guards mount; dragoons, Swiss regiments, Walloon Guards, Spanish infantry "*A los pies de Vin Dona Manuela!*" Let us go to mass.

'All the bells are ringing, all the streets covered with rock-roses, rich carpets hanging from every balcony, and altars raised on every square, under canopies of state. The procession sets out. What a number of neat little angels, with pasteboard wings, covered with gilt paper! images of saints, with fine powdered bob wigs, and robes of gold brocade! What swarms of priests! How many beautiful girls! All present, and in mixed groupes!

'The clock proclaims noon day! we return through the square of the *Puerta del Sol*! All the *rifas* (raffles) have begun, all the hackney writers are busy, and the whole square thronged with people.

'One o'clock! we are called to dinner: a great deal of saffron, many love apples, plenty of oil and pimento! But then, wine from *La Mancha*, Old Xeres, and Malaga! What a nice thing is Spanish cookery!

'*La Siesta!* la Siesta Senores, a deadly silence in all the streets!

all the window shutters are put up or the curtains let down ; even the most industrious porter stretches his length on his mat, and falls asleep at the fountain with his pitcher behind him.

' At four o'clock, every body repairs to the bull fight, to the canal, or the prado ; all is gaiety and merriment : one equipage after another, one chaise after another, drive full speed to those places of diversion.

' The Puerta del Sol becomes as crowded as before, and the water carriers and orange women, the procuresses of the frail fair, are all as busy as bees.

' Thus passes the afternoon ; and the dusky shades of evening set in at last. All the bells ring, and every Spaniard says the prayer of salutation to the Virgin. Now all hasten to the *tertulias* and theatres, and in a few minutes the rattling of carriages resounds in every street. The lamps before the houses, or the images of the virgin, are already lighted : the merchants and dealers have illuminated their warehouses and shops, and the sellers of ice water and lemonade their stalls. Every where are seen rushlights, paper lanterns, and bougies on the tables of the fruitwomen and cakemen.

' Meanwhile, the crowd on the square has prodigiously increased, and it is soon stowed with people. In one part you will hear the soft sounds of the guitar, or a seguidilla ; in another a female ballad-singer tells in rhyme the tale of the last murder committed ; in a third a thundering missionary attempts to move the hearts of obdurate sinners, while the light-footed cyprian corps carries off his audience by dozens. Soon passes the rosary and the tattoo with music, and the equipages return from the theatres.

' It grows still later ; the crowds begin to disperse : by one o'clock in the morning all the streets are still and quiet, and only here or there resounds a solitary guitar through the solemn gloom of night.'

From the beginning of June till the end of September the climate appears to be burning hot :

' The very pavement seems to be in a glow, and whoever wears thin soles, thinks he is walking on fire.'

But the author remarks that lunacy and madness are very rare. This is probably owing to the light diet and abstemious regimen of the inhabitants ; and those foreigners who in this respect imitate the natives, may preserve an excellent state of health even in the most torrid season in this torrid capital.

Madrid contains seventy-seven churches, which are (or perhaps rather *were*) filled with valuable images of saints, and with many fine paintings. The convents amount to seventy-one, of which we are told that only three deserve notice. The old royal palace, called Buen Retiro contains (or contained) an assemblage of superb paintings by the best

masters. In the garden of the Buen Retiro is one of the most beautiful walks in Spain :

‘ It lies on a height which commands a full view of part of the city, the Prado, and adjoining country. Its pure air, refreshing coolness, neatness of disposition, and vicinity to the Prado, daily bring a number of visitors to walk there.

‘ The fashionable class is particularly partial to this spot, probably, because all the ladies may appear there in French dresses.

‘ According to an ancient regulation made by count Aranda, every lady is obliged to unveil herself at her entrance. The men too, before they enter, must, by virtue of an old custom, take off their hats for a few minutes.’

The necessities of life are said to be of the best quality. The water, which is conducted to the capital from the mountains of Guadarrama, over a bed of sand and pebbles, is said to be ‘ so peculiarly excellent that it is scarcely possible to find it lighter and purer, even in the towns of Switzerland.’ It is distributed through the city by means of two and thirty great fountains. Yet Bonaparte has had the effrontery to tell us that his brother Joseph left Madrid because he found the water bad.

Fruits of almost every sort are in great abundance. Cherries, oranges, lemons, apples, pears, limes, water-melons, figs, walnuts, pomegranates, and bergamot pears, are plentiful and cheap. For five or six quartos,* vegetables enough may be had to satisfy three or four persons.

‘ The prices of all these commodities are marked on a list, taking up two folio sheets, and placed at the entrance of the Plaza Major. It is renewed every Saturday, and seems to be rigidly attended to.’

The author gives a pleasing and lively account of the Prado, or celebrated public walk in the east quarter of Madrid, which extends three quarters of a league in length, and whose alleys are crossed by five of the principal streets.

‘ It strikes four o’clock, P. M. ; the siesta, or afternoon nap, is over ; the alleys are sprinkled with water ; the owners of seats present their chairs ; the confectioners and orange women their goods ; and the alleys are full of the walking multitude, and several hundred carriages are moving to and fro.

‘ Who enters the Prado, on such an evening, for the first time, will

* A quarto is little better than a farthing English.

certainly find ample diversion : the greatest variety of old and new fashioned equipages of every kind, from the state chariot to the hackney coach. What contrasts ! what an ample field of observation ! Here's a beautifully varnished *via-a-vis*, drawn with hempen ropes, by a pair of jaded mules ; there, a couple of pretty Polish ponies, with English harness, before a bulky antediluvian-looking travelling coach, servants loaded with gold lace, and dirty coachmen in grey cloaks ; the most striking difference in the colours of the equipages and liveries, the most insipid profusion of the nobler metals, the most ridiculous chequer of decorations. No spot in the world can exhibit a more fantastic medley.

' We derive no less entertainment from a review of the riding passengers, who may be very plainly examined by the curious eye, on account of the open glass windows or pannels.

' What a number of enchanting young beauties ! How many grey haired mummies of superannuated duchesses ! officers, priests, ladies with their gallant squires, tender young virgins with their *duennas*, old dukes with their confessors, buxom nurses, from Biscay, with their sucklings : in a word, here's all the genteel and fashionable world of Madrid, united in one group. The Spanish costume is vanished, and the equipages contain none but ladies in the height of fashion, but voluptuous Grecians.

' Meanwhile the piquet guards of dragoons fly to and fro, to preserve order ; some carriages quit their line ; others join ; riders and walkers mix among them, and beggar boys and dealers in fruit border the whole ; but how is it possible to draw a picture, which seems itself to assume so many thousand variegated features ?

' The benches near the botanical gardens, the chairs in the principal alleys and the turf seats are all full of spectators. The great alleys, in particular, are swarming with ambulating crowds, and people repair from all quarters to the prado. But the shades of night begin to spread, the bells ring the angelic salutation, all the walkers stand still, as if petrified ; the carriages cease rolling : In a minute or two the short prayer is said ; every body now hastens to the theatres, to the tertulias : the clock strikes nine : the prado begins to be deserted, and to look more solitary.

' But now arrive the hours of love and delight, whose secrets are wrapt up in the black mantle of night ! O the love inspiring gloom ! The aromatic and vivifying exhalations of the fanning evening gales, the magic lunar beams playing in the shades, and the romantic sounds of the melting guitar ! the animating *doleros* ! O, sweet, enchanting inebriation of life's dream, why hasten away thus suddenly, and for ever !

The Spaniards do not seem to have paid much attention to the culinary art. The author tells us that the sum of Spanish cookery is composed of five plain national dishes as ancient as the monarchy. Of these dishes that called the *puckero* is the principal :

'It consists of a hodge-podge of beef, bacon, sausages, pease, potatoes, turnips, carrots, onions, cabbage, garlic, all boiled together, and then seasoned with pimento or Jamaica pepper.'

The *Palacio Nuevo*, or the new palace 'commands a view of the whole city, and resembles rather a citadel than a royal mansion.' The interior is (or was) adorned with the most splendid furniture, and the most valuable paintings. Of these the author furnishes a catalogue, which is not accompanied with critical remarks, and is the dullest part of the work. This magnificent palace is placed almost at the extremity of the town, amidst a number of mean-looking and crooked streets. The king is said not to have resided in it more than 'two months in the year; namely, December and January.'

There are seven public and six private libraries at Madrid; to which access is easily procured; and at the time M. Fischer wrote this work literature was making a rapid progress in Spain. The late revolution has proved that the public opinion in Spain was more highly enlightened than is commonly imagined. The author gives a list of numerous scientific institutions at Madrid. Of these the *Royal Spanish Academy*, has furnished ample proof of its industry by a dictionary of the Spanish language in seven volumes, besides various other works. The *Royal Academy of History*, besides a considerable library and collection of medals, possesses a repertory upon the history of Spain truly unique in its kind. It comprizes archives and records, which were collected from all parts of the Spanish monarchy: and which are arranged in chronological order in one hundred and forty-seven volumes in quarto. The patriotic societies in Spain amounted, according to M. Fischer, 'to sixty-four.

The use of the cigarro has almost banished that of the common pipe:

'The Spaniards have two sorts of cigarroes; some consisting of little rollers, manufactured of the tobacco leaf, and tobacco wrapt up in white paper rollers.'

Some have a sweetish flavour like that of cinamon, and a fine aromatic scent:

'Every Spaniard smokes his own cigarroes, of whatever sort they be. They serve likewise as tokens of friendship, and pass from one mouth into the other. There cannot be a greater proof of a Spaniard's favour than his presenting his cigarro to a stranger; nor can

the latter possibly hit on a better method of gaining his friendship than by observing the same ceremony.'

We were highly pleased with the account which the author has given of the *Cofradias* or *Brotherhoods*, which are benevolent institutions, that do the highest honour to the Spanish character, and indeed reflect a splendour on humanity itself. The metropolis of Spain abounds with these truly charitable associations. The most eminent are the holy royal brotherhood of *our Lady of the Refuge*, and that of *our Lady of Hope*. The most distinguished persons are enrolled amongst the members; and the benefactions which they confer, and the judicious and delicate mode in which they administer relief to the different species of human misery, that come under their observation, are above all praise. The Catholic religion, whatever may be its superstitious appendages, and its doctrinal defects, has certainly equalled any of the professed systems of Christianity in diffusing a spirit of beneficence, and encouraging works of charity.

Sweetmeats, or *dulces* as they are called, are said to be in great request among the fair sex in Spain. 'Woe's the lover who appears before them without sweetmeats!' Fuel is a dear and rare article in Madrid; and though the summers are hot the winters are cold. The *Royal Pawn-house*, as it is called, is a novel and excellent establishment at Madrid. At this place money is lent on pledges without interest, and the whole system is calculated to benefit the poor rather than to enrich the government. 'Since the foundation in 1798, it has lent 119,458,681 reals to 580,649 individuals.'

We are sorry to find that in Madrid, as in other capitals, there are numerous mothers who refuse the bosom which nature has filled with milk, to their infant progeny. *Wet-nurses* are no where in greater abundance. The *police* is said to be excellent; but the *administration of justice* execrable. The inquisition no longer persecutes heretics nor heresy. 'Nothing is required of a stranger but common decency, respect, and a tolerant behaviour.' The author gives a picturesque and animated description of the *bull-fights*, the favourite pastime of the Spaniards, which we have not room to extract. If the churches are not filled with any thing but the formalities of religion, they are said to favour the realities of love.

'If lovers can meet no where else, they may depend upon an interview in these places. The gallant places himself near the vessel of holy water, and faces his mistress, near the spot where she kneels, and once more squeezes her hand, ere she leaves the church.

Happy beings! They never mind the sinfulness of the practice because they may at all times get absolved in the next confessional.'

The author enlarges on a variety of other topics which we leave unnoticed; and we can assure the reader that he will find this a very lively and agreeable performance.

ART. VI.—*Blackheath and other Poems; including a Translation of the first Book of the Argonautica of C. Valerius Flaccus.* By T. Noble. 4to. 1l. 11s. 6d. Causton.

ONE thing which distinguishes ancient from modern poetry is that species of the art which is called descriptive. It seems to have been totally unknown to Greece, and to the best ages of Rome. Homer, who has adorned poetry with almost every possible beauty, has left this department untouched. Throughout his two poems, we do not meet with any delineation of rural scenery, with any selection of picturesque objects, which may properly be denominated a landscape. - Even the bard of Sicily, from whom we might expect such pictures of nature, has not given one. He indeed presents us with cooling grots, murmuring streams, whispering pines, and nightingales innumerable; in short, with every thing to gratify every sense except the critical eye of taste. Nor have we any better success in perusing the poems of Virgil. This has been accounted for by a very ingenious writer, who supposes that the ancients had no descriptive poems, because they had no landscape-paintings. 'They had no Thomsons,' he says, 'because they had no Claudes.'

Whatever be the reason, it is certain that since the knowledge of this most pleasing branch of the pictorial art, descriptive poetry has become very common. Not to mention other nations, we have, among ourselves, Denham, Pope, Garth, Dyer, Thomson, and many others too numerous and too insignificant to name. Lastly we have the gentleman, whose poem is now before us.

It is not surprising that a young poet should choose such a department of the art for his first essay. It is a tempting province. Independantly of the pleasing images which it presents to the mind, it no less attracts by its apparent facility. For what can be so easy as to describe 'a painted meadow or a purling stream:' in short, to write a poem where, accord-

† Twining, the translator of Aristotle's poetics.

ing to Pope's degrading account, 'pure description holds the place of sense?' But this is a great mistake: no part of poetry is beset with more real difficulties: no part requires more the genius of a master. He has no claim to the character of a descriptive poet, who fixes himself on a beautiful spot of earth, and then tells us minutely of every object which presents itself to his eye: who talks of huge oaks, green meads, &c. &c. This in spite of all the magnificent profusion of epithet with which it may be adorned is not a descriptive poem, but merely an auctioneer's catalogue in verse, with this defect that it is not quite so intelligible. It is not sufficient that the writer's mind be imbued with poetical images, nor that his common-place book be stuffed with poetical phraseology. He must view nature not 'through the spectacles of books,' but with his own eye: and that eye must be not simply the eye of a poet but also of a painter. He must not describe the whole scene before him; for this would make his description confused and indistinct: but he must select such objects, and such only as to a painter would appear beautiful and picturesque. This is the only method to render his landscape vivid and distinct. It was by this art of selection that Thomson made his poem so delightful, enriching it with landscapes equal to any of those which

'Lorrain e'er touch'd with softer hue,
Or savage Rosa dash'd, or learned Poussin drew.'

All this is indeed very difficult, and requires a master's hand. Of this the author seems to have been aware when he exclaims that

'Weak expression would in vain essay
To copy the rich picture from the sight.'

But this remark, though just, is strangely misplaced in a descriptive poem; since difficult as the task is, it is no more than what the writer undertook when he chose this subject. But this is not all; for as the most beautiful landscapes are dull and cheerless without some living objects to animate the scene, so a descriptive poem without episode and incident cannot fail to create tedium and disgust. A judicious intermixture of story with his descriptions forms the principal charm of Thomson's poem, which may be said to live and breathe: nor is the animated narration of a stag-hunt, the least attractive part of 'Cooper's hill.' Another way of relieving the tedium which mere description, however pleasing, will always excite is by introducing apposite and natural re-

flections. Here again we must admire Denham, Pope, Thomson and Dyer, whose *Grongar Hill* and another little poem, called the 'Country-walk,' abound with natural observations. There is also another piece of Dyer's, 'the Ruins of Rome,' which, though its general effect be tedious, is yet adorned with much beautiful description and natural remark.

It remains to consider how far the poem before us is composed on the principles here laid down. Its great prevailing defect is that it is general and indistinct. It conveys no certain definite image to the mind. Every thing is seen through a mist. It would be easy to produce many instances; but, as this would be tedious, let one suffice. He is describing the grounds about a nobleman's seat.

'Hence this grove,
This flowery lawn, these intermingled shrubs,
Whose various verdure blends in tender tints,
Or smiles in gentle contrast; hence yon elms,
This stately beach, wide solitary lord,
Of the dew-spangled meadow; these light boughs
Whose infant leaves upon the clouded bark
At every zephyr tremble—and the shade
Of yon high poplars thrown across the scene
Combine a verdant aspect mildly gay
Expressive of tranquillity and love.'

We shall say nothing of the excessive false taste in which the above lines are written, nor of the number of unnecessary epithets with which they are encumbered: but they particularize nothing: they would serve for the description of any seat where there are elms, beaches and poplars,—i. e. for almost any given gentleman's seat in the country.

Again, in episode the poem is lamentably deficient. Out of the five cantos there is but one, viz. the fourth, which contains any thing like an interesting story. In that are two, which have merit, but they are infinitely too long. Indeed prolixity is a principal fault of this author: and weakens the effect of many otherwise interesting passages. His pathos especially evaporates in his immeasurable periods and diffuse diction. See, for the passage is too long to quote, page 99, to page 107.

With reflections indeed it abounds, which are so far natural that they are common and obvious: but a truly natural remark is not such as suggests itself to every mind, but such as being once seen, every body is astonished that it did not first occur to himself.

As to the diction, the poem is very faulty. It has all the faults of Thomson's versification, of whom indeed in this respect but in no other, the author seems a studious imitator. The style is turgid, clogged with epithets unnecessary and affected, and abounds with tasteless personification. The reader may open any page and he will find this remark amply confirmed. But we will produce a few instances.

The following passages are turgid and affected :

' The Sun

Above the clouds, on which at his approach
The spirits of ascending light unfurled
His glorious ensigns and proclaimed the day,
Hath soared sublime and showered his radiant shafts
Illuming the blue concave.' P. 15.

Again :

' Up you rise, a flood

Of tender radiance fluctuating rolls
Its ruffled surface, when the young rye bends
Beneath the breeze,' P. 33.

The next are instances of the great profusion of epithet with which he loads his sentences.

' The new-born foliage dropt with glistening dew,
While yet a scanty vestment for the boughs
Pleasing in palest verdure, and the bloom
Breathing its gentle fragrance on the air
From every silver leaf, may with the charm
Of soft congenial influence waken hope,
Blythe hope, bright harbinger of mental spring !' P. 1.

Again:

' Then not the Hesperian sun, whose orient beams
Unclouded o'er the clear cærulean vault
Effulgent break.' &c. &c. p. 46.

Unskilful and affected personification :

' Yet hope

Attracted by the sister-hopes, that spread
O'er every infant blossom, and each blade,
That bursts above the glebe their silky spells,
Arises trembling from the cruel grasp
Of pale dependency and looks abroad.' &c. P. 10.

Again :

'Round her car
In crouds the little nautili were seen.'

'While arm'd like love appeared, magnetic power,
A cherub form, who shook his dingy wings
And shot his rapid arrows towards the North.' p. 79.

Here the epithet *dingy*, however proper when given to the magnet, becomes perfectly ludicrous when applied to the wing of a cherub.

The author is affectedly fond of such words as 'tender,' 'suffusive,' 'empurpled,' and a multitude of others, the indiscriminate use of which manifests a deplorable want of correct taste.

There is another fault which must be mentioned, and the rather because in general the versification as to mere measure is very correct; which is, that either through mistake or design two or three lines are of a most redundant length.

'Sound loud and gladful : here let the cheering hand.'
C. iii. l. 336.

'Throws a red deluge : dragged by the tightening ropes.'
C. iii. l. 521.

'Bends o'er the never fading amaranth and sheds.'
C. iv. l. 4.

'Breathing ideas from every living scene.'
C. v. l. 70.

We are no friends to those who measure syllables by their fingers; but surely the ear alone might convince the author of the inharmonious length of the above lines. It is true indeed that the first two may be so read as to seem of proper length: but no artifice of reading can reduce the last two to legitimate metre. The third line is a perfect monster; and if in the last the author means 'ideas' to be a dissyllable, it is a contraction for which he has no authority except Mrs. Slipslop.

We come now to the more agreeable part of pointing out some of the beauties of the poem.

The following lines are spirited and poetical :

'I love to tread where time has strewn the path
With trophies of his power; there to gaze
Upon the historic muse, who sits sublime
Above his crumbling conquests, and exults
That led by her the soul of man hath saved

Whole ages from the tyrant ; and has left
Nought but the mould'ring stone within his grasp.' p. 13.

The subsequent sketch, though dashed with affectation, is picturesque.

' Gaze eastward from the brow of this gay hill
Whose slopes the blue fir shadows ; there behold
The proudly swelling river welcome home
The numerous vessels of yon wealthy fleet
Slow and majestic mid the embracing waves,
That glistening break against each sea-worn prow,
They move deep freighted:—their long furrowed path
Glow far behind refulgent, while the sails
Bosomed by native breezes wide distend
In snowy folds, or at the changing helm
Tremble disturbed and throw a wavering shade
Across the sparkling current.' p. 56.

The idea (p. 68.) of the Greenwich-pensioner viewing the vessel in which he fought coming home to be broke up is well conceived and poetically expressed. The passage is too long for insertion. The thought in the following lines is expressed with elegance.

' Look round and see how many wastes extend
Their sterile bosoms ; where the yellow broom,
The blushing eglantine, and snowy thorn,
Like beauteous braids about a harlot's neck
Spread useless ; even where with matron pride,
The earth espoused to labour should unveil
Her breast redundant with her children's food.' p. 96.

There is delicacy in the following comparison of a girl, forgetting her own cares in her parent's sorrows, to a flower.

' Thus o'er its root
Its wounded parent root, the lily droops,
Nor heeds the smiling morn, nor breathing eve
No, nor the dewy kisses of the air
That sighs beneath the shade ; but lowly bends
Its tender form, sad, o'er its parent root
With that recovers or with that expires.'

And indeed the whole episode of Lacon is pleasing and interesting : but its effect is much weakened by its great length. On the whole, the great defect of the author is false taste. Instead of copying Thomson's diction, which is faulty, it would have been better to copy, as far as possible, his brilliancy and distinctness of colouring, his judicious selec-

tion of circumstances, and his art of varying his subject with beautiful and interesting episodes. Thomson has beauties which counterbalance the faults of his style; but in a man who has not the genius of Thomson, it is of all styles the most disgusting. For who ever waded through the long-spun stories of his imitator Mallet? In order to improve his versification we recommend the careful perusal of Dryden, Pope, Armstrong and Dyer. We do not mention Milton, on account of the difficulty and danger of imitating him. His style is too grand and magnificent to be attempted by any common hand. But in the authors above recommended Mr. Noble will find a classic conciseness, a perspicuity, an energy, which he will see in scarce any other modern poets.

The other poem of sufficient consequence to demand a critique is a translation of the first book of the *Argonautics* of Valerius Flaccus. It is accompanied with a preface written with some shew of learning, but in a very bad and tasteless style. Valerius is an author very little known to the generality of readers. He has not indeed the correctness of imagination nor the purity of diction which distinguish the chaste Augustan school; but he has beauties which well deserve general attention. His contemporaries praise him, and his commentators speak of him with great fondness. Laurentius Balbus, one of the most ingenious of them, ascribe to his poems '*Venerem atque sublimitatem*,' gracefulness and sublimity. The first is more proper than the second. There are many passages in Valerius conceived and expressed with a tenderness and elegance worthy of Catullus: but very few indeed which can be called sublime. He was more fitted to write elegies than epics. We allude particularly to the parting of Jason and his parents in the first book; Medea's opening love for Jason in the sixth: the first part of the seventh: Medea's soliloquy at the beginning of the eighth, and her mother's pathetic lament at her flight in the same book. These passages possess a softness and pathos which would have made their author eminent had he applied himself to elegiac or amatory poetry: but an epic was too mighty a work for his genius. And yet some, among whom the present translator may be numbered, have gone the absurd length of placing him on an equality with Virgil.

'Equal to Virgil! yes perhaps:
But then by Jove 'tis Dr. Trapps.'

We do not quote this from a desire to undervalue Flaccus: but surely it is the height of folly to institute such com-

parisons. They degrade instead of exalting the character thus injudiciously praised; as a well-sized man sinks into insignificance by the side of a giant.—On the whole we should have thought that the poem of Flaccus, to say nothing of its being a fragment, was neither of sufficient interest in the story, nor of sufficient excellence in the execution to induce any scholar to translate it. Since, however, the task has been undertaken by Mr. Noble, who seems to be extremely fond of his author, we would by no means discourage him from proceeding: but at the same time we earnestly entreat him, in the name of good taste, to purge his diction from the many florid and affected appendages which disgrace it. The language of the translation has all the faults which we mentioned as disfiguring the poem of *Blackheath*. This is the more inexcusable because Flaccus is a writer of taste: and though he has not the purity of the Augustan age, still he is very little deformed by that affectation and false ornament which abound in the writings of the declining literature of Rome.

It would however be extreme injustice to Mr. Noble not to mention that many passages are rendered with considerable force and animation. The following passage, though it possess not the energetic conciseness of the original, is free and spirited. We must just hint that the word 'gallop,' in the first line is neither poetical nor elegant.

' Then gallop'd Chiron from the mountain's brow
 With young Achilles to the plain below,
 Who calls his sire with shouts and infant cries;
 At the known voice he sees his father rise
 With arms extended: quickly then he springs,
 And long and fondly to his bosom clings;
 Bowls of bright wine he cares not to behold
 Nor glittering standards wrought with polished gold,
 But fixes on the chiefs his wondrous gaze,
 Imbibes their ardent words with bold amaze:
 Fearless th' Herculean spoils his hands sustain,
 Proudly he grasps the lion's mighty mane.
 Peleus transported snatched him to his breast,
 And rapid kisses on his cheeks imprest;
 Then on the heaven his ardent eyes intent,
 If Peleus' vows ye'd hear, imploring, spent
 For wafting breezes o'er the peaceful main,
 This boy, ye gods, this life beloved sustain.
 From thee, O Chiron, I the rest require;
 The clarions' clangor and the battle's ire,
 Oft let him listening from thy lips admire.

Now taught by thee the hunting dart to rear
 Soon may he poize the lofty Pelian spear.' v. 398 to 420.

For the pleasure of those who may not have by them the poem of Flaccus we subjoin the original.

'Jamque aderat summo decurrens vertice Chiron
 Clamentemque patri procul ostendebat Achillem.
 Ut puer ad notas erectum Pelea voces
 Vidit, et ingenti tendentem brachia passu,
 Adsiluit, caraque diu cervice pependit.
 Illum nec valido spumantia pocula Baccho
 Sollicitant: veteri nec conspicienda metallo
 Signa tenent: stupet in ducibus: magnumque sonantes
 Haurit et Herculeo fert comminus ora leoni.
 Lætus at impliciti Peleus rapit oscula nati,
 Suspiciensque polum: 'Placito si currere fluctu
 Pelea vultis, ait, ventosque optare ferentes;
 Hoc, superi, servate caput. Tu cætera, Chiron,
 Da mihi: te parvus lituos et bella loquentem
 Miretur: sub te puerilia tela magistro
 Venator ferat, et nostram festinet ad hastam.' v. 250 to 270.

The parting of Jason and his parents is eminently beautiful in the original, and the translation deserves considerable praise. The whole passage is too long for quotation; we select the lamentation of Alcimede as a specimen.

'Offspring belov'd! asunder we are rent!
 To shameful perils thou my son art sent!
 Not such misfortunes, she exclaim'd, I taught
 My shuddering soul to meet with patient thought!
 Earth and its wars were yet my only cares;
 Now other gods must hear a mother's prayers.
 If fate restore thee to these arms again,
 If anxious mothers may appease the main;
 Still will I bear the lingring light of day,
 Fears lengthening horrors, hope's renewed delay;
 If other fates, death, hasten with relief,
 While fear is all a parent knows of grief.' v. 493 to 504.

It may not be disagreeable to some readers to compare this with the original.

'Fatur et hæc: Nate, indignos aditure labores,
 Dividimur: nec ad hos animum componere casus
 Ante datum; sed bella tibi terrasque timebam.
 Vota aliis facienda Deis. Si fata reducant
 Te mihi, si trepidis placabile matribus æquor;
 Possum equidem lucemque pati, longumque timorem,
 Sin aliud fortuna parat; miserere parentum
 Mors bona, dum metus est nec adhuc dolor'

v. 320 to 327.

We think in general that the sense of the original is correctly given but not the manner: and we must object very strongly to the introduction of such words as 'capstan,' 'star-board,' 'sailyard,' and some others into any poem which aims at giving general pleasure.

To the translation Mr. Noble has subjoined some notes, which may be useful to the English reader. Most of them are from Burman, of whom however the translator does not speak with becoming respect. But he has taken no notice of Laurentius Balbus, the namesake of Flaccus Setinus Balbus, to whom every admirer of the poet should feel peculiarly grateful. For he mended the text in many places which were almost incurable. We shall instance but two. The first is his substitution of 'tranquilla tuens' for 'tranquilla timens,' in the 38th line, which last reading is nonsense. This emendation was adopted by Carrio. The second is of still greater importance. The text (line 331) originally stood, 'Scythicum metuens pontumque Cretamque.' This is evidently wrong, being false quantity. Balbus ingeniously substituted 'ratem:' but Carrio reads 'polum,' which seems the best.

To conclude; we entertain no mean opinion of Mr. Noble's abilities; and shall be very happy to meet him at some future time: but we cordially hope that he will previously chastise his taste by the studious perusal of the most pure and simple writers.

ART. VII.—*The Duke of York. A plain Statement of the Conduct of the Ministry and the Opposition towards his Royal Highness the Duke of York.* &c. Egerton. 1808.

A MAN may guard against the malice of his enemies, but he is seldom sufficiently prepared to prevent the evil which may accrue from the officious good nature of his friends. The writer of the present pamphlet is supposed to be friendly to the interest of the Duke of York; but the character of his Royal Highness could hardly have been lowered so much in public estimation by the most virulent aspersion of his enemies as it has virtually been by the awkward praise and imbecile statement of this weak and inefficient advocate. It has been said, but it is hardly credible, that the present writer was purposely employed by the Duke of York to vindicate his military fame, and to elevate him, in the character of general, to a level with the most distinguished

names. If the Duke of York did really select the author of this pamphlet as his advocate, it must be confessed that his Royal Highness could not well have been more unhappy in his choice. Still there are some important facts mentioned in this Statement, which could have been known only to certain illustrious personages, which encourage the belief that the pamphlet itself was published *by authority*, and that, at least, some of the matter which it contains, was furnished by the *great man* whose cause it professes to espouse. Were it not for this *probable circumstance*, there is nothing in the performance itself which would entitle it to the smallest consideration; and we should barely have noticed the title in the Monthly Catalogue.

In the first part of his pamphlet, the author seems very angry with the ministry for not more warmly espousing the cause of the Duke of York, and for not punishing those who have presumed to call in question his military skill. Nay, the author goes so far as to insinuate that the ministry have actually encouraged the calumniators of the Duke.

‘If government,’ says he, ‘or what is the same thing, the existing administration, for reasons best known to themselves, choose to detach an individual from their body, and to put him as it were out of the covering protection of their society; and what is more, if their actions are such as must be construed into an encouragement of a public persecution against the object of their jealousy—is it a subject of surprize, I say, if such an individual, pushed out of the pale of government protection, should become an object of attack to a popular demagogue? In every society, since the first constitution of a community, there have been, and there must be, a plentiful portion of that spirit, which, impatient under a civil inferiority that it fancies to be unjust, avenges itself by an hatred of all those whose station is more dignified. When any such dignified individual is turned out amongst such a class of natural levellers, is it any reasonable subject of surprize that the whole pack should be upon him—that he should be worried upon this side and upon that; that he should be made the scape-goat upon whom the faction should exhaust all the revenge and malignity conceived against the fraternity?’

‘There is one thing, however, which may excite a very reasonable astonishment. It is confessed by all, that the spirit of the times is not in favour of that measured obedience, that moderated respect to government, which, even under a free constitution, is necessary to the very existence of a community. Would it not seem, therefore, to be a natural result of this state of things, that all the immediate members of a government, all the more distinguished individuals of an administration, should feel a common interest, a principle of prudence and sympathy, in protecting each other? Should not the at-

tack of one be considered as the attack of all? when so many are combining against all of them, should there be no defensive union amongst themselves?

'An individual unacquainted with public affairs would either refuse credit to such a statement, as conveying in itself an absurdity which is its own refutation, or would be astonished that the rules of public conduct are so precisely the reverse of the maxims of private prudence. He would suspect, and perhaps justly too, that the state of things was bad indeed, when the most effective officer in the state—he who should at least be the most effective officer—is represented as one who is not to be trusted with the execution of what falls most immediately within his official duties; and when the ministers of the country neither repel this accusation, nor act upon it. He will be inclined to demand—Whence is this temerity, and this cowardice—this audacious accusation, and this reluctant execution of a sentence tacitly confessed to be just? Do ministers assent to the justice of the charge, or do they consider it to be founded in malice? If the accusation be just, why is it not acted upon? What kind of ministers are these, which will sacrifice the public service to fear or favour? On the other hand, if the ministers know it to be unjust, why are they silent? Is there no attorney general, or no treasury papers? Is every possible fund of defence exhausted? Has Mr. Canning no wit, and my Lord Castlereagh no words?"

The reason why his Royal Highness has been thus deserted by the ministry, the author supposes to be because his Royal Highness has not enlisted himself under the banners of the ministerial party, nor completely identified himself with ministerial interests:

'No one,' says he, 'is secure of protection, unless he has associated himself to some party, and it is a breach of ministerial, or rather of party-privilege, and as such offensive to all parties to stand neuter, and keep aloof from such connections.'

The author therefore imputes the clamour which has lately prevailed against the Duke of York, not to any defect of military or of any other merit in his Royal Highness, but solely to his not belonging to the party of the ministry, nor of the opposition.

'It is not,' continues the author, 'the public service, but private malignity, or at least private jealousy, and individual contests for honour and place, which have indisposed a very powerful party against his Royal Highness, and withholding from him the natural and necessary protection due to his rank and station, have left him naked to the assaults of his low-minded libellers.'

The following is the curious and circuitous method which

this *libeller in disguise*, takes to panegyryze the military talents of the Duke of York :

‘ From his youth upwards, his Royal Highness has passed through every stage of his military career. No one has yet appeared so totally wanting in all truth, as to question his Royal Highness’ personal courage. Let it be granted then, that with this acknowledged personal courage, added to the common sense which we should hope no one will deny him, his Royal Highness has at least obtained the common knowledge of his profession. Let us at least allow him what is denied to no one, that he cannot have passed through such a course of study, and under the best masters of the age, without having acquired what is almost necessarily acquired by every one in a similar course. Grant that his Royal Highness is not superior to other generals, why should he be inferior ? It is known to every one who approaches him, that he is not wanting in natural talents, in a solid and just understanding, and in the art of observing, and availing himself of his observations. Let us put it, therefore, to the candour of the public, and of the gentlemen of the army, if with such an understanding and such experience, such advantages of rank, and with such good masters, it is not a reasonable presumption, that his Royal Highness has at least the common and sufficient knowledge of his military profession ?’

When we come to sift the few ideas which are contained in all this chaff of *verbiage*, what do we learn but that his Royal Highness is neither a coward nor a fool ? Is this sum of negative virtue sufficient to induce ministers to place his Royal Highness at the head of armies, and to entrust him with the fate of empires ? Is it sufficient to justify the author in drawing a parallel between the present British commander-in-chief and the Roman Coriolanus, whose merit raised him from the ranks, and who was great in every fortune ?

It has been often asserted in parliament and in print, that independent of the external and visible cabinet, there is a factious junto, which skulks behind the throne, which secretly controuls the measures of ministers, and influences the most important motions of the political machine. But we never heard this fact so distinctly stated and so unflinchingly avowed by any writer on the side of the court as the present. The author of the pamphlet before us states the origin of this party, and represents it as a measure of self-defence on the part of the crown to secure itself against the predominating influence either of the minister or the opposition :

‘ Since the days of William the Third,’ says the author, ‘ there have existed in this kingdom two avowed parties—an Opposition and a Ministry. As a defence from the overwhelming predominance

of either, every succeeding Monarch has deemed it necessary to have a kind of domestic party—a kind of Closet and Family Council, whom he may occasionally interpose between even his Ministry and himself. The origin of this party has been imputed to his Majesty's Father, or rather to his Mother, whilst Dowager of Wales; but the point of fact is, that it existed in the reign of George the First, and seems to have had no other origin than in its manifest necessity. It was not the creature of any design, or previous arrangement; but, as a matter of prudence, and necessary defensive policy, grew insensibly out of the very nature of things.

Now the immediate and almost necessary members of this party, are certainly the King's Family and Household. From whom else, indeed, should a Family Council—a Domestic Cabinet—be composed, but of the members of the Family—of those who must necessarily have a community of interest, and sympathy in feeling? The Heir Apparent alone, for very obvious reasons, is seldom a member of this Closet Council: all the other Princes are almost necessarily in the immediate confidence of their Sovereign and Father. Let it not, therefore, be objected to the Duke of York, that he has followed the course of things, and, with the Queen, is at the head of the 'King's Friends.' Yet, '*hinc illæ lachrymæ*'.—Hence this avowed hostility on one side, and this apathy, or rather secret abetment, on the other. It is the interest of all parties to assist to beat down what is equally in the way of all.

Thus we learn that there is a party in the state who, under the denomination of the KING'S FRIENDS, are constantly watching with a sort of insidious hostility, the movements both of ministers and of their opponents. Such a party, though assuming the name of the king's friends, cannot surely be sanctioned by the king; for this would be to suppose the king to place no confidence either in the loyalty of his ministers or of his people. It has been said that a king who makes himself the head of a faction is but half a king; but what should we think of a sovereign who, distrusting both his legitimate counsellors and his people, should reserve all his confidence for a few members of his family? or for two or three fawning sycophants and domestic menials? The account therefore of the author must surely be a gross misrepresentation.

The author is rather less friendly to the late administration than to the present. He says that on the death of Mr. Pitt,

'they rushed forward to seize every thing with the most indecent avidity. The king was not to choose them; but in consideration of the state of the kingdom, they were to offer their services: they were not even to enter upon office till they had obtained a general

carte blanche. Never was monarch approached in the manner in which our venerable sovereign was approached by these men. His majesty felt most acutely the loss of his former servant, and, in the difficulties of the moment submitted in part to the demands of the haughty faction. They were allowed to fill up their own lists and to follow up their own general principles.'

The author afterwards says of this administration that the public expected of them and that '*they conceived themselves obliged to introduce a perfect reform in all the branches of the public service, &c.*' However contrary it may be to the intentions of the author, yet he has certainly in this passage passed the highest encomium on the late ministers: for even allowing their avidity for place, yet it appears from his own confession that they would not have accepted of the sweets of office, if they had not previously received his majesty's consent '*to follow up their own general principles;*' and '*to introduce a perfect reform in all the branches of the public service.*' But it appears that the reforms which they were anxious to introduce into the military department, which was more particularly under the controul of his Royal Highness, had excited his resentment, and was ultimately the real cause which precipitated their dismissal from the councils of the sovereign. The reforms which the late ministry proposed to introduce into the department of the commander in chief were such as '*would have reduced his office to a mere cypher, and left him in a situation of no more activity or importance than that of the master of the horse.*' The dread of these reforms is said to have caused his Royal Highness '*to throw himself upon the immediate protection of his royal father, and to draw closer the bonds between himself and what has been invidiously called the Family Council.*'

The present administration 'endeavoured in vain to annex his Royal Highness by a distinct pledge to their own immediate party.' 'The ministry,' says the author, 'seem resolved to compel every one to take a party, even his Majesty's sons must fall into the ranks.' The refusal of his Royal Highness to undergo this ministerial drilling is said to have alienated the cabinet from his interests, and party-feeling was exasperated into personal animosity.

The inference which we may naturally draw from this pamphlet; supposing it to have been written according to the instructions, or under the direction of the Duke of York, is, that even the present ministers do not enjoy the complete and undivided confidence of the sovereign. Like their predecessors, they seem to be watched with jealousy and distrust by the *Family Council*; which, if it exist as the author asserts,

forms another intermediate barrier between the monarch and the people. The wishes of the people must be approved not only in the ostensible cabinet, but in the secret chambers of the Family Council, before they are likely to receive the approbation of the sovereign. If any measure of great public utility, like that of Catholic emancipation, be approved in the first cabinet, is it not likely to be frustrated by the machinations of the second? As his Majesty is the father of his people, and the chief magistrate of a free constitution, we cannot suppose that he can sanction a council in opposition to his acknowledged ministers, or that he can place his confidence in any persons who do not openly appear, and are not personally responsible for the advice which they give. It has been said, that no man can serve two masters; but is any king likely to be served well by a double set of servants, one of whom is constantly watching with insidious vigilance the motions, and machinating the downfall of the other?

ART. VIII.—*A Day in Spring, and other Poems.* By Richard Westall, Esq. R. A. 8vo. 12s. 6d. Murray. 1808.

MR. Westall's justly established reputation in a sister art induced us to open his poetical production with higher expectations than we generally conceive from the first appearance of an unknown author. For, although it is very possible that a close attention to any one branch of art may sometimes prove an obstruction to the attainment of any considerable degree of perfection or polish in another, yet so intimately are poetry and painting allied, that we have perhaps never seen a successful painter whose mind was not also stored with poetical imagery, however circumstances may have opposed themselves to his bringing forward his innate talent for composition. For this reason, we are generally disposed to expect from a painter's poetry, if not any very refined or high-wrought versification, that at least which we esteem ten thousand times more highly, the marks of a lively imagination and vigorous fancy.

Mr. Westall's poetry is like his painting, not sublime or magnificent, but extremely natural and pleasing. Its colouring is warm, and its expression, though not much varied, engaging and tender. The only difference is just what we should have expected. His composition in the former department is less finished than in the latter. It admits of

inequalities, inaccuracies, and occasional meanesses which, had his principal attention been directed to poetry, he would have learned to avoid. He would have written better, had he painted less.

Milton's 'L'Allegro,' has been the model of his first and longest piece. Perhaps nothing can afford a more perilous test of ability than the imitation of that unrivalled poem. The enterprise is beset on every side with snares and pitfalls. Dull and prolix uniformity on the one hand, namby-pamby infantility on the other, are the enemies only principally to be dreaded; and we cannot at present recollect a single poem written on this professed model, (beginning with one of the most celebrated, 'Grongar hill,') that is not more or less tainted with both those defects. If then, we cannot pronounce Mr. Westall to be altogether free from them, it is but fair to add that his plan itself deserves censure more than his execution. We will select by way of specimen the following passage, in which a nice critic will not be at a loss to discover traces of the faults we have pointed out, though the most fastidious must acknowledge it to contain beauties sufficiently striking to redeem them.

' Through the garden now we'll range,
View its sweets; and mark their change;
Beauteous fav'rites of a day!

Oh! how sweet the breath of May!
Oh! how rich her form appears,
Bounteous smiling through her tears;
As the day-star riding high,
Clears the lately clouded sky!

Never let my banks be free
From the flaunting piony;
Or the flower that bears the name
Of the never-dying flame;
Or the tulip's pencill'd bell,
Or the pink, with spicy smell:
While beside them lovely grows
Flora's pride, the mossy rose,
And the lily's breast of snow
Blends the heaven tinctur'd glow:
Let the hollyhock be high,
Deeply steep'd in purple dye;
I delight to see him drest
In his dark imperial vest,
Branching wide, and waving loose;
Drunk he seems with Tyrian juice.

Never wilt thou glad mine eyes,
 Song-ennobled helichrise !*
 Arethusa's banks of old,
 Used to shine with loveliest gold,
 While, her sacred shades among,
 Thick thy cluster'd berries hung,
 But the *doric shepherd* † died !
 And e'er since, thy grief to hide,
 Thou hast droop'd in cavern drear,
 Shrinking from the balmy air !
 Who shall raise a simple strain,
 Luring thee to life again ?
 This the Mantuan youth ‡ essay'd,
 And his pipe enchanting play'd ;
 But so much of art was found
 In the smooth, the polish'd sound,
 That thy half-uplifted head
 Sought again its sullen bed.

Thee I lack ! but still my bower
 Shines with many a lovely flower ;
 At its entrance, close entwine
 Suckling sweet and eglantine ;
 Round its side the blossom'd May
 Loves with twisted branch to stray ;
 And the jasmine as his mate,
 Slender, sweet, and delicate.
 There the vine her tender boughs
 Round the oak luxuriant throws,
 Hiding in his vigorous arms,
 Like a bride, her blushing charms ;
 Emblem of the first embrace,
 His the strength, and hers the grace. P. 25—28.

The 'Approach of Winter,' which stands next in the collection, is extremely short, and rather to be considered as a sketch, a fragment, or (to use the artist's expression) a *study*, than a finished piece. But the following lines are remarkably feeling and natural.

'How chang'd, how silent is the grove,
 Late the gay haunt of youth and love !

* The helichrise was a plant highly celebrated by some of the Greek poets, particularly Theocritus ; it is now entirely unknown : by some writers it has been supposed to be the same plant as the Roman ivy ; but I am informed, by the first botanical authority, that the difference between them is very considerable.

† Theocritus.

‡ Virgil.

Its tangling branches now are shorn
 Of leafy honours, and upborne.
 By their close tops, the snow hath made
 Beneath a strange and solemn shade,
 Here oft with careless ease I lay
 On the green lap of genial May:
 Dear was the stream, whose bottom shone
 With fragments rude of sculptur'd stone,
 Which from yon abbey's ivy'd wall,
 Shook by the wind would often fall;
 Dear was the sound its waters made,
 As down the pebbly slope they play'd.
 I hear not now the mimic roar,
 Seiz'd by the frost, it sounds no more;
 But dreary, mute, and sad it stands,
 Torpid, beneath chill winter's hands.'

Mr. Westall's poetry is, as may be expected, and as much of what we have already quoted abundantly testifies, strictly picturesque. But he knows also how to seize the advantages which poetry possesses over her sister-art, and to embody in verse images which painting can never represent. For instance, in his poem entitled 'Night,' which upon the whole is rather inferior to the rest, but contains two admirable stanzas.

'Tis so silent, I can hear,
 As I pass the rustic bowers,
 E'en the dew-drops falling near
 From the overcharged flowers.

'Tis so silent, I can hear
 E'en the distant cattle feed,
 As I range, unheeding where,
 Through the path-way of the mead.'

The 'Songs to Myra,' and 'Odes to Sophia,' do not possess much that we have not often found before in other songs and odes to other Myras and other Sophias. They all, however, run very smoothly, are very gentlemanly, melancholy, and lover-like.

Mr. Westall's 'Odes, descriptive of the character of the Works of some of the greater Poets,' contain occasional marks of good taste and discrimination, but are not remarkable for conception or force of language. Homer, Hesiod, Alcæus, Sappho, Anacreon, Pindar, Theocritus, Virgil, Horace, Ovid, Shakspear, Spenser, and Milton, are the subjects chosen.

The book is elegantly printed, and contains four exquisite engravings from very pleasing designs of the author.

ART. IX.—*A Letter to the Commissioners of Military Enquiry, containing Animadversions on some Parts of their Fifth Report ; and an Examination of the Principles on which the Medical Department of Armies ought to be formed.* By Edward Nathaniel Bancroft, M. D. Fellow of the Royal College of Physicians, Physician to his Majesty's Forces, and to St. George's Hospital. 8vo. Cadell. 1808.

ART. X.—*A Letter to the Commissioners of Military Enquiry, in Reply to some Animadversions of Dr. E. Nathaniel Bancroft, on the Fifth Report.* By James M'Grigor, M. D. F.R.S.E. Fellow of the Royal College of Physicians, Edinburgh, &c. &c. 8vo. Murray. 1808.

ART. XI.—*A Letter to the Commissioners of Military Enquiry, explaining the true Constitution of a Medical Staff, the best Form of Economy for Hospitals, &c. with a Refutation of Errors and Misrepresentations contained in a Letter by Dr. Bancroft, Army Physician, dated April 28, 1808.* By Robert Jackson, M.D. 8vo. Murray. 1808.

ART. XII.—*Observations on the Fifth Report of the Commissioners of Military Enquiry ; and more particularly on those Parts which relate to the Surgeon General.* By Thomas Keate, Esq. F.R.S. Surgeon General to his Majesty's Forces, Surgeon to the Queen, to their Royal Highnesses the Prince of Wales and the Duke of York, to Chelsea Hospital, and to St. George's Hospital. 4to. Hatchard, Piccadilly.

ART. XIII.—*Proceedings and Report of a Special Medical Board, appointed by his Royal Highness the Commander in Chief, and the Secretary at War, to examine the State of the Hospital at the Military Depôt in the Isle of Wight, &c. &c.* By Sir J. M. Hayes, Bart. John Hunter, M.D. George Pinkard, M.D. and John Weir, Esq. 8vo. Seely. 1808.

ART. XIV.—*An Exposure and Refutation of various Misrepresentations, published by Dr. M'Grigor and Dr. Jackson, in their separate Letters to the Commissioners of Military Inquiry, interspersed with Facts and Observations concerning Military Hospitals, and Medical Arrangements for Armies.* By E. Nathaniel Bancroft, M.D. Fellow of the Royal College of Physicians, Physician to his Majesty's Forces, and to St. George's Hospital. 8vo. Cadell. 1808.

THE famous tenth report of a former parliamentary commission, has given an interest to the labours of commissioners, which is perfectly new in the public sentiment. The subtle machinations of fraud, and the gross instances of peculation, the want of public spirit, and the violation of common honesty, which have within the last few years, been brought to light in the civil and military departments of the state, have shaken the confidence we were used to repose in public men : successive discoveries of delinquency have tended still more to keep alive a general distrust and suspicion ; and on the appearance of every fresh report, curiosity is on tiptoe, to learn what fresh detection has been made, what new character is to be destroyed, what fair outside is to be stripped of its tinsel and frippery, and is to be exposed to the public scorn, in all the native deformity of guilt and imposture.

For our own parts the sensations we experienced upon the appearance of the fifth report of the commissioners of military enquiry were those of alarm and apprehension. We trembled for the honour of our profession. We feared lest some fresh examples should appear of burning of vouchers ; some more specimens of prudent and politic reserve. ' I do not remember.' ' I am not bound to answer that question.' ' My lawyers have advised me that you have no right to ask that question,' and so forth. But upon perusing the report, and particularly the explanations and documents which have been extorted by it, our apprehensions have been tranquillized. Of direct charges of corrupt practices we find none ; Statements of misconduct and neglect of duty are sometimes alledged and more often insinuated against some of the principal officers of the medical department of the army. But Mr. Keate, the surgeon general, on whom parts of the report seemed to bear the hardest, has given explanations so full and distinct of those parts of his conduct to which blame had been imputed, giving a specific answer, *seriatim* to every specific charge, and supporting throughout his allegations by authentic official documents, that we are persuaded that he is fully acquitted in the minds of every honourable and impartial man. We must just notice at this place, that the fifth of the publications, titles of which we have prefixed to this article, is printed in consequence of an offence taken by the gentlemen whose names are prefixed, at some expressions applied by Mr. Keate to their report which he has termed hasty, and made completely *ex parte*. It appears that Mr. Keate has himself been hasty in this accusation : and indeed he has handsomely apologized for it. But we can-

not think the word *ex parte* wholly misapplied, when in fact only one party and that the accused was examined.

Had the commissioners of military enquiry confined their animadversions to matters which seem to be within the sphere both of their duty and their comprehension, to the expenses of public boards, packing of medicines, prices of instruments and of drugs, accumulation of stores, expenditure of wine, spirits and porter, or accounts of empty casks, we should hardly have thought it within our province to notice their labours, and should have left the parties implicated to have exculpated themselves, or to have sunk under the load of their accusations. But they have gone much further, and have in consequence involved themselves (we believe involuntarily) in many errors, lighted up a controversy conducted with no small degree of personal asperity. The subject of their inquiry, being wholly new to every member of the commission, they very naturally set about gaining some information concerning it. The newest and in the opinion of the commissioners we believe the only books on the subject were the publications of a writer whom Dr. Bancroft aptly describes to be 'noted for a strong propensity to innovating projects and speculations, as well as for eccentric and peculiar opinions.' This writer is Dr. Robert Jackson; and from him they learnt that the only persons qualified to treat the diseases of soldiers are the regimental surgeons. They go further—they assert that in point of fact,

'Medical men stated to be inexperienced in military habits, and the conduct of army medical practice, were placed at the head of the staff, (that is to say physicians regularly educated,) and the sick were taken from the regimental surgeons, and were almost solely accommodated in the newly established general hospitals. The consequences were very unfortunate: the mortality, which while the sick remained with their regiments in the former year, had been trifling, and even in those regiments which still kept their sick under the eye of their surgeons, in 1794, was comparatively small, became very great in the general hospitals; and the expenditure also, owing to bad superintendence, and the want of a due system, was very considerable. It was another consequence of the change, that the regimental surgeons,—not being permitted to take care of their own sick, became less active in the service.'

All this means precisely that regimental surgeons understand the treatment of diseases better than regular well educated physicians. Such a doctrine, if pushed to its natural extent goes to prove that learning and education are not ne-

cessary to the practice of physic ; and that in the treatment of patients learning is an obstruction, and the most uninformed succeed better than the most accomplished. Had the commissioners seen the obvious consequences of their own doctrines, we think they would have paused before they had submitted such monstrous propositions to the judgment of the legislature : they would have suspected that the men who attempted to make them swallow such gross absurdities, must have been acting from some sinister motives ; and that instead of resigning their common sense to the suggestions of two or three obscure individuals, they would have summoned to their aid all the learning of the profession, or at least have required the statements of their informants to be supported by the most clear and unexceptionable documents. But, strange to say, they seem studiously to have avoided putting a single question on the subject to those who were most able to give them faithful and impartial information ; and to have been afraid of receiving a tittle of evidence, which might shake their faith in their favourite hypothesis. Pre-determined that the notions of Dr. Jackson should be the type after which the system of the army medical department should be new modelled, two obscure individuals of the names of Borland and M'Gregor or M'Grigor were selected to procure a confirmation of the notions they had adopted ; two men who had been at no great distance of time taken from the humblest departments, and in which it appears from the facts which have been disclosed concerning them, that they ought to have remained to the present hour. Of these, one (Borland) it is enough to state that he has falsely called himself a licentiate of the college of physicians of Edinburgh, and probably has assumed the title of doctor, without any legal authority : a trait of the other will be found below, which precludes the necessity of our giving any opinion of the confidence which is to be placed in him.

'The assertion that you had collected information from gentlemen of *great* experience in *every* branch of army medical practice,' Dr. Bancroft justly observes in the able pamphlet, which the report of the commissioners has extorted from him,

'Implied that you had examined or communicated with all these medical officers, whose professional rank and science, and whose military experience, respectability of character, and, I may add, independance of circumstances, might operate as a security for the accuracy, fairness, and sufficiency of their testimonies, respecting the advantages and defects of general and regimental hospitals. But

this expectation has been *wholly* disappointed ; for the various documents published in the appendix to your report, are proofs that you have omitted asking all those officers of that description who appeared before you (viz. Sir Lucas Pepys, Mr. Keate, Mr. Knight, Sir John Hayes, Mr. Young, and Dr. Frank), a *single question* about the respective or comparative benefits of general and of regimental hospitals : you have likewise omitted making enquiries on these subjects from other gentlemen of the rank of *inspectors*, as Dr. Nooth, Dr. Robertson Barclay, Mr. Weir and Dr. Moore ; and you have not condescended to summon before you *even one* army physician. From all these sources abundant and valuable information might with certainty have been obtained : but instead of recurring to such authorities you have contented yourselves with the testimonies of two officers, whose evidence ought *prima facie*, to have been received with great caution, because both owe their promotions and present employments to those late arrangements in the medical department, which have affected the depression of the army physicians, and the discontinuance of general hospitals, and are therefore deeply interested in representing these arrangements as the most advantageous to the public. That their testimonies might be partial was thus to be apprehended ; and therefore most persons would have thought it prudent in you either not to have demanded or not to have depended solely on them.*

Such is the nature of the evidence upon which these commissioners have deemed themselves authorised to recommend to the legislature, that no regular physicians should be allowed in the military service of this kingdom. A stranger conspiracy against reason and science we will venture to say was never hatched. It requires a very small effort of reason to show the weakness of the reasoning and the absurdity of the calumnies by which this project has been attempted to be supported : but as a deference might be paid to the office of persons acting under the authority of parliament, which would be refused to their arguments, we think the profession to be under obligations to Dr. Bancroft for the able, temperate, and dispassionate manner in which he has examined the report, and refuted the misrepresentations and slanders levelled against the army physicians, a body of men as respectable for attainments as any the country can boast ; and who seem to be very inadequately recompensed for the toils and dangers to which they expose themselves in the service of the state.

Many of the supposed facts which the commissioners have stated upon the authority of the *quondam* hospital mate, (we beg pardon, Doctor M'Grigor, we find, was never an hospital-mate, he became surgeon to a newly raised regi-

ment about the year 1794, which office he purchased for 150l.) seem absolutely void of foundation. The assertion of Borland given upon oath, of the evils which arose from the appointment of persons taken from civil life to be staff physicians or surgeons is at complete variance with the documents in the office of the surgeon-general. Dr. M'Grigor's situation was such in Flanders that it is utterly impossible that he could have obtained any knowledge worthy of the least notice respecting the general hospitals on the continent. Dr. M'Grigor in 1808 perceived that in Grenada, while the sick soldiers were treated regimentally, the mortality was trifling; but on the return of the army to quarters, when the sick were ordered to general hospitals, the mortality was very great indeed. But in 1804 he saw no such thing; he states positively in a volume published that year under the title of 'Medical Sketches of the Expedition to Egypt,' that the 88th regiment continued pretty healthy at Grenada for three months after their arrival there, or as long as they remained to the windward side of the island. 'This,' he adds, 'was likewise the case with the 10th, 15th and other regiments. It was only after our return to St. George's and to Richmond Hill, after we had communication with the 68th regiment and the general hospitals, where the yellow fever had for many months prevailed, that it appeared in the 88th and other corps.' It is as clear as noon-day that when writing this sentence Dr. M'Grigor thought of nothing less than the superiority of regimental over general hospital treatment; but was simply detailing the supposed effects of contagion. Borland (we mean no offence to him, but his title being unsettled, we are equally afraid of withholding a proper one, or affixing one to which he has no claim) has sworn that the superiority in the regimental mode of treatment 'was particularly marked in the Russian auxiliary army that landed in Guernsey and Jersey in 1799 full of contagion, and which in six months afterwards, when embarked on its return to Russia, numbered 13000 strong and had not 100 sick.' This is very fine indeed. But mark how a plain tale will set you down. 'While the Russian troops were embarking at the Helder, especial care' (we are informed by Dr. Bancroft) 'was taken to separate every man who had any appearance of ailment from those who were in perfect health; and to send the latter only to Jersey and Guernsey, the former being sent to Yarmouth, where with the exception of one transport which carried her sick to Gosport they were landed to the number of more than 2000, most truly full of contagion; and were afterwards there received

and treated in the general not regimental hospitals. Nay more: Dr. Benckhausen (the physician general of the Russian army) made heavy complaints of the treatment which the sick met with in the islands; the accommodations provided for them he said were miserable, and 'the treatment of the sick had been wholly abandoned to the Russian surgeons mates, who had not the least knowledge of internal diseases.'

'Whether the Russian army,' adds Dr. Bancroft, 'was indebted for the recovery of its sick and its healthy state on leaving Guernsey and Jersey to the wretchedness of their habitations, and to the ignorance of their surgeons mates, for these seem to have been the only benefits, which the regimental management procured for them, or to the original paucity of the number of their sick, and to the acknowledged salubrity of those islands, I shall submit to your serious reflection.'

Such is the miserable, shallow and sandy foundation upon which these commissioners have attempted to blast the credit of a learned profession, and to depreciate the public services of a most accomplished and useful order of men. We think a greater misfortune cannot befall a state, than that of having ignorant and low men put into offices which require enlarged and comprehensive minds, the effects only of liberal culture, and in a measure likewise of having been born gentlemen. The station of chief medical officers of an army, is one which involves the highest degree of responsibility that can be imposed upon man. It is not the proper treatment of this or that individual; to have a comprehensive view of general causes, a discriminating judgment to discern the various and complicated forms of diseased action, with activity, courage, and presence of mind, are the rare qualities which ought to be sought for in the man to whom the safety of large bodies of men is entrusted. That to form such men, *education* is at least essential, is a proposition so evident, that we are confounded with astonishment, when we find sensible men propose to dispense with it. To expect to find men fit for such situations among regimental surgeons, at least except as solitary examples, is to expect to reap a harvest from a field that has never been plowed or sown. One of the finest armies which were ever sent from England is said to have been exposed to the most extreme hazard from a most fatal disease through the imprudent orders of a surgeon elevated to a situation for which he was not qualified by his education, and who was therefore ignorant of the na-

ture of the distemper; and the troops in all human probability rescued from destruction, by the firmness of an army physician, who saw the danger, and persevered in pointing it out till measures of safety were taken. Dr. Bancroft has in his second pamphlet, given an account, sufficiently ludicrous, if what concerns the safety of multitudes can be allowed to provoke a smile, of the confusion, dismay, and most culpable delays which took place, when the plague appeared in one of the regiments of the Indian army in Egypt. The date of its appearance was on the 13th or 14th of September, 1801. Though it had been announced on one of these days, and a recommendation had been given that an *immediate* removal of the patients should be effected, it was not till *two* days after that measures were taken for providing a receptacle for the patients and a medical officer to attend them. The medical officers (whom Dr. McGrigor has since represented as anxious to be placed at the *post of honour*;) drew lots to determine on whom the care of these poor creatures should devolve. *Another day* still past over before the removal took place; and the medical attendant found, on taking possession of this new habitation, that neither medicines nor food had been provided, and that there was not even a candle to enable him to see what condition his patients were in, or how he could relieve them.' Thus by neglecting to make an immediate separation, the disease became propagated, and proved fatal to numbers. Nor was the plague the only evil these poor creatures had to contend with. The pest houses were fixed in marshy situations; many who survived the plague were seized with intermittents, and in some instances at least they were suffered to perish by cold. This is a specimen of some of the medical management of the army transported from the East-Indies to Egypt, which the commissioners have been induced to hold up as a model of perfection.

If many of the abuses which the commissioners have pointed out in the army medical arrangements, have had in reality no existence, it does not follow that there are none, though we believe the commissioners have not considered them as such. Such, for example, is the elevation of a surgeon to be inspector general of regimental hospitals; part of the duties of which office is described to be 'to frame the code of regimental hospital instructions,' and to examine 'the detailed weekly returns of all regimental hospitals, from whence to judge of the propriety of the practice, and appropriation of diet, &c.' These would seem to be duties pertain-

ing to the office of the physician rather than of the surgeon. The appointments of deputy inspectors, who are officers that have a controul over the physicians, is still more irregular. The patronage of these appointments is very absurdly given to the inspector general, who in his zeal to elevate the members of his own profession, and to depress the army physicians, has made a rule to appoint none but surgeons to these offices. This is no small evil. Persons are apt to imagine that men who are promoted to the first posts are those who most abound in knowledge. A surgeon and a physician are in the eyes of a general officer very nearly on a footing of equality as to medical knowledge. On emergencies therefore he will consult the surgeon, though he is probably quite uninformed on the subject of his enquiries. Of the abuses that have absolutely taken place, we will cite the following illustrations.

* Of the surgical inspectors, some, *presuming on their authority, have dictated even to army physicians the medicine they should prescribe for their patients*: others (ignorant of the first principles of physic) have issued public orders that the patients in the general hospitals of a particular denomination, for instance labouring under a certain acute disorder, should all undergo one and the same mode of treatment directed by themselves, without regard to age, differences of symptoms, stages of the disease, &c. and when obliged to confess the failure of the first mode, have proceeded to order another indiscriminate species of treatment, and then a third; and others again have posted through their districts urgently recommending various powerful remedies, such as 'a free use of the lancet;' emulating, perhaps, the example of their patron and Magnus Apollo, who is stated, * by good authority, to have 'proposed' (for the benefit of a certain, and unfortunately of late a numerous description of sick in the regimental hospital, the use of the lancet with a freedom, *far beyond what had formerly been thought of, a freedom (since adopted on such recommendation)* that leads to the taking away of 150 ounces of blood or more in the course of a very few days, in cases where the inventor and 'proposer' of this practice (which truly deserves its character of '*not having been formerly thought of*,' even by M. Le Sage) will probably find it very difficult to persuade physicians that if bleeding were requisite, the loss of twenty or at the most thirty ounces might not have sufficed, with other proper means.'

Those who wish to see some other curious examples of regimental practice under the direction of a most reso-

* See 'an account of the Ophthalmia which has appeared in England since the return of the British army from Egypt, by John Vetch, M. D. assistant surgeon to the 54th regiment.' Pages 97 and 100.

lute and determined theorist may receive much disgust or much amusement from No. 8 of the appendix to Mr. Keate's observations, which contains 'some account of Dr. Jackson and Dr. Borland at the Chatham and the Isle of Wight Depôt hospitals.'

'I did see men ill of fevers bled freely,' (says Dr. Maclaurin in a letter to the army medical board) 'much too freely, I then thought and still think, (it was a pretty regular routine, even in fevers of debility.) I saw too, 'men apparently not ill of fevers, bled freely,' bled to fainting, lying upon the surgery floor, in a manner equally indecent and alarming; this is not an accidental circumstance, but a most frequent occurrence. I did see Dr. Jackson's prescriptions sent to the surgery; in them bleedings directed, without the quantity of blood to be taken specified, but of course left to the discretion of any hospital mate, who happened to be in readiness to operate, and who had not then, nor could have previously had, an opportunity of ascertaining with accuracy the disease.'

The temperate and judicious defence which Dr. Bancroft has made of the army physicians has produced two answers: one from the fruitful pen of Dr. Jackson; and a second from that of Dr. McGrigor.

We cannot commend the spirit of Dr. Jackson's performance. As he has had personal disagreements with the medical board, we are willing to make allowance for the irritation of a wounded and perhaps of a disappointed spirit; but we must say that his sneers at the physician-general of the army are neither manly, decorous, nor liberal. If there exist a man, who is disposed to go beyond the confined and narrow path of regular duty, and to sacrifice his time, his talents, and his labour to the public service, that man is the present physician general. Dr. Jackson should blush at the poor and petty insinuation which we will not transcribe (see p. 12.) This gentleman has in fact given up more of his time to the public *gratuitously* than any other professional man in the kingdom.

On the question of the superiority of regimental or general hospitals, Dr. Jackson's evidence is not so strong as might have been expected from his experience and the great attention he has undoubtedly paid to military medical arrangements. Most of his assertions are unsupported by documents of any kind. On the system pursued at the Cape, he says,

'The sick returns may be consulted, as it is presumed they are still preserved in the office in Berkeley Street. They will, I presume, shew the effect to have been a fortunate one.'

But why did not Dr. Jackson take this trouble upon himself? His letter, we see, is dated from London, and surely there was no peculiar urgency, for its precipitate appearance. If regular documents were produced, the public would derive some benefit perhaps from this controversy. We must at the same time do the doctor the justice to acknowledge that he speaks with candour on the causes of mortality in general hospitals.

The medical officers of the army, Dr. Jackson informs us, are of two classes: he ought to have said of three. One is the regular physician from Oxford, or Cambridge, to whom, he observes with a sneer, the care of the army ought exclusively to be given, as possessing a right to exclusive knowledge from the ceremonials through which he obtains the doctor's cap. Then there are the half regulars 'who have obtained a diploma at a Scotch or Irish university;' and who have afterwards been licensed to exercise their art, on paying a sum of money to the College in Warwick-Lane. This account, independent of its disgusting petulance, contains more errors than one. Those, who obtain licenses of the college, receive them upon appearing duly qualified after repeated examination. What they pay, is a perfect trifle, exclusive of the value of the stamp, legally affixed to their licence. The other class we will describe in the doctor's words.

'The other class, and it constitutes the great body of army medical officers, is comprehended under the denomination of regimental surgeon. The subjects of this class are often obscure in their rise, and irregular in their progress. They trust, or pretend to trust, to no other qualification, except possession of the knowledge of their profession, which is the art of curing diseases by the speediest and safest means, without licence according to the statute of Henry the eighth. The regimental surgeon may cure a disease,—a fever for instance, as safely and more speedily than the regular physician; he is notwithstanding precluded from bearing the name, and ostensibly from assuming the physician's office in the British army.'

Now, without intending any offence to a body of men containing numerous respectable individuals, we may be permitted to inquire, who are really these gentlemen whom Dr. Jackson and the commissioners would wish to supersede the regular army physicians. Are not the mates universally young men, having just served apprenticeships to common apothecaries, professing also, as apothecaries do, a little surgical knowledge, and subsequently having spent a single winter in attendance in the London Hospitals? It is a mon-

strous fact too that in this attendance they gain no medical knowledge whatever; they become pupils to surgeons, they see and attend to none but surgical pupils, their examination is surgical. The greater part of them have not only not practiced themselves, but have not seen any medical practice whatever, good, bad, or indifferent. A course of medical lectures they may have attended; and with the great majority this is the sole qualification they possess to undertake situations, of which the chief functions are purely medical. How these things happen, it well becomes those to enquire who are concerned for the fate of the defenders of the country. It is in part owing doubtless to a wrong direction of education, that young men do not (from causes which may be readily pointed out) make the best use of the advantages which are before them. But the evil is in part likewise owing to the state of society, and therefore, we fear, irremediable. It is that a body of men, properly qualified, does not exist. Nor will they ever exist without an institution, formed and supported by the legislature, for their formation. Hence the examiners are forced to accept and to pass as qualified for the service of the army and navy, men who are greatly deficient in the necessary qualifications. 'There has been,' says Dr. Harness, ('See the Appendix to the Report of the Commissioners of Military Enquiry, p. 178.')

and still is, great difficulty of procuring hospital-mates and assistant surgeons, properly qualified for the royal navy; the number at present deficient cannot be less than *six hundred.*' 'When the expedition under Sir R. Abercrombie was preparing for the West Indies; it was found necessary,' says Dr. Bancroft, p. 21, 'to advertise in the newspapers, offering at once the highest pay, &c. ever allowed to hospital-mates, and it was also found expedient to accept with-out any thing like an examination all who presented themselves to the inspector-general in London, or to Sir J. M. Hayes at Southampton.' And so late as the 13th of October, Mr. Knight (the inspector-general) informed the commissioners that 'the same difficulties still exist, and rather in a greater degree than before, as we were unable to furnish more than one third of the requisition for hospital mates for the last expedition under Gen. Beresford.' The natural consequences of this is that every young man, who has been bred to the profession is received, whatever be his qualifications, or rather whatever may be his want of qualification.

But those who are sensible of their want of original education, or (what in their eyes is of much more consequence)

who are apprehensive that the world is sensible of it, are constantly descanting on their *experience*; they set practice in opposition to theory, and would insinuate that all preliminary information is needless or at least of little moment in comparison with actual employment. We will readily allow that the most copious book-learning, or lecture-learning is of little value, if unaided by an extensive observation of real diseases. But we assert, with the same confidence, that experience can really not be acquired by those who are deficient in fundamental principles. Men may look to eternity, but if they have not learnt either what to look at, or what to look for, they will not be a jot the wiser. The knowledge of medicine that these ignorant young men (we speak only of the bulk of them) will gain by their experience, will be about as much as that which a countryman, who can neither read nor write, can gain of astronomy by gazing at the stars; or as much as the common soldier will gain of the art of war, by serving in the ranks for five-and-twenty years. No reasonable man will doubt for an instant, that when he is dismissed to the peaceful shades of Chelsea-hospital, his knowledge is nearly the same as when he first shouldered a musket, though he had spent his whole life in the service, under a Marlborough, a Eugene, or a Turenne.

Such an one, say the commissioners, is a man of great and extensive experience in 'army medical practice.' The physician general is spoken of slightly as not having had any acquaintance with army hospital practice, previous to his appointment; and hospital mates and regimental surgeons should be selected to be physicians, 'who possessed actual experience in army medical practice, both at home and abroad.' They seem then to have imbibed a notion that the diseases of soldiers have something in them peculiar, which can only be learnt by serving in the army, and which medical men, educated regularly to the profession, even imperfectly understand. This silly prejudice extends equally to the treatment, to which those only are supposed competent, who have had much experience 'in army medical practice.' Perhaps the numerous practices that have been in army diseases, and the narrations of the medical events of campaigns, predisposed the minds of the commissioners to the reception of this doctrine, which it seems to be the interest of a large body of men to encourage. Dr. Bancroft has very properly exposed this error.

* One of these (erroneous suppositions) is at p. 16 of your Re-

part, where you mention the manners, the "habits, and often the diseases of the military as being peculiar in a high degree;" and again, at p. 85, where you mention "the habits and peculiar diseases of soldiers;" believing doubtless, that men who enlist as soldiers thereby *change* their *physical constitutions*, and become susceptible of diseases, which do not exist in *civil life*; or that the causes of disease operate on *soldiers* differently from what they do upon *other men*. How you came to adopt an opinion so destitute of all solid foundation, I will not determine. Certainly you will not find it in the works of Sir John Pringle, or Drs. Cleghorne, Brocklesby, Donald Monro, John Hunter, and others, who have written professedly on the diseases most prevalent in armies; nor can I find it any where distinctly expressed even by Dr. Jackson, though he often mentions "military diseases," and "army diseases." But he tells us, at p. 24,—1803, that "army diseases are the same in kind as those which happen in civil life." He chooses indeed to add, "that the *aspect* of them is often more threatening, seeming to demand more promptitude and decision in the application of the means of cure." If, however, this supposed difference even of *aspect* be considered as any thing constant or general, it has no existence but in Dr. Jackson's imagination; and if it had a real existence, the fact would only evince the expediency of employing well-educated physicians, whose experience, enlightened and assisted by scientific principles, would enable them much better to detect any thing fallacious or instructive in the aspect of these diseases, than surgeons could, without science, however experienced.

The pretended experience of uneducated and uninstructed men can be nothing more than a blind routine. Let us even look at the practice of the apothecary, who is employed from morning till night in attending a croud of patients, and we must be convinced of this fact. He cannot discriminate an inflammatory from a putrid state of the system; he neither knows the name nor the symptoms of a single disease; as to remedies, he either contents himself with the use of those which are nearly inert; or if he is presumptuous, the common concomitant of ignorance, employs the most active remedies with the most indiscriminate and murderous profusion. Knowledge of subjects, comprehending a great variety of particulars, is in fact but little more than method and arrangement; to this must be added, in medicine, a nice discernment and discrimination between resembling facts. The want of education almost necessarily implies an uncultivated condition of the discerning faculties; and when men, without the knowledge of *principles*, enter upon extensive *practice*, the multiplicity and complication of facts presented to

them produce an inextricable confusion, and in truth presents an insurmountable barrier to the progress of information.

With Dr. M'Grigor our account will be very short. Some remarks of Dr. Bancroft's, which reflect upon the accuracy of his statement, seem to have kindled his wrath, and he vents his fury upon his opponent in no very peaceful nor becoming language. Dr. B. had concluded from some passages in Dr. M'Grigor's Medical Sketches, that the latter gentleman was snug in England at the very time, when from his evidence he was making his profound comparisons between the regimental and general hospitals in the island of Grenada. Dr. M. very coarsely calls Dr. Bancroft's assertion a falsehood; asserting that he arrived at Grenada some months earlier than Dr. Bancroft has supposed, and upon this mis-statement is founded, he says, 'a charge so abominable to my feelings, that words fail me to chastise it in terms of sufficient sharpness or severity.' But if there be an error in the dates, whose fault is it? Dr. Bancroft's, who has fairly quoted his opponent's pamphlet, or Dr. M'Grigor's, who writes so loosely, that he brings forward his own mate to prove that the embarkation of his regiment took place '*later than is stated in your volume.*' And we must remark, that even his present statement of his motions seem utterly inconsistent with all the main points of his former relations, and the impression which was intended by his evidence to be made upon the commissioners.

But this same Dr. M'Grigor would have done well to have smothered his rage a little, and have reserved a portion of it for Mr. Keate, who has brought forward a document which, we fear, must have been still more irritating to a gentleman of such nice sensibility and tender feelings of honour. For it appears that he has been quite as loose in his swearings as in his writings. Dr. M'Grigor has stated upon oath, that a staff which contained no physician, and consisted in all but of eight persons 'was a complete medical establishment, consisting of between twenty and thirty in number.' This pretended 'complete staff,' joined the Indian army at Cossair in June 1801, and received from Dr. M'Grigor the charge of the medical concerns of that army; they marched together over the desert of Thebes; were encamped together on the banks of the Nile; descended the river together to Ghiza; again embarked and proceeded together. Dr. M'Grigor, being subordinate to some of the officers of this

staff, must have had frequent communication with them, and also with the apothecary and purveyor. This very Doctor retained two of them (the hospital mates), so that it is wonderful if he was not personally acquainted with every individual of the party. After the detection of such gross and palpable exaggeration, hardly to be accounted for by any stretch of candour, and unatoned for by any marks of shame or contrition, we commend Dr. Bancroft for declaring his resolution to abstain from further contention, and refer the decision of any further dispute, if needful, 'to the cognizance of a tribunal, which will be competent to punish as well as notice such misdemeanors.'

We hope that this controversy may ultimately prove of benefit to the army; not by forwarding the coarse, barbarous, and shop-keeping projects of the commissioners. We trust that a British legislature in the nineteenth century, will never suffer the modest and unassuming sons of science to be thrust out of their seats by the clamours and unblushing falsehoods of rude and assuming pretenders. We trust that if innovations are to be made, they will be not to depress and discourage men of learning and education, but to elevate and promote them; not to expel physicians from the service of the army, but to augment their numbers, to increase their respectability, and to remunerate more amply their labours. Not that we would favour any monopolies or exclusive privileges: let the hospital mate and regimental surgeon have every facility given him for the acquisition of knowledge; and when his competence is allowed, not upon his own *ipse dixit*, but by due examination before his proper judges, let him aspire to the first honours of his profession. It is obvious, that there is much which is fundamentally wrong in the present system. We should be glad to see it replaced by one, which should be harmonious in its parts, should preserve a due subordination among all its members, and which, whilst it reserved to men of regular educations their well-merited distinctions, should be unjust to none, but should afford to talents and industry, wherever they are found, the opportunities of rising to honours and emoluments.

ART. XV.—*A Journal of the Voyages and Travels of a Corps of Discovery, under the Command of Captain Lewis and Captain Clarke, of the Army of the United States; from the Mouth of the River Missouri, through the Interior Parts of North America to the Pacific Ocean; during the Years 1804, 1805, 1806; containing an authentic Relation of the most interesting Transactions during the Expedition; a Description of the Country; and an Account of its Inhabitants, Soil, Climate, Curiosities, and Vegetable and Animal Productions. By Patrick Gass, one of the Persons employed in the Expedition. 8vo. 98. Pittsburgh, printed. London, reprinted for J. Budd, Pall Mall. 1808.*

THE object of this 'corps of discovery,' was to explore the immense tract of country which lies between the Mississippi and the Pacific Ocean. Those parts of the North American continent which have been the least visited by travellers, and are indeed considered as unknown, may be described as commencing

'at the Pacific Ocean in latitude about 33 north, and running along the highlands and mountains between the waters which fall into the gulphs of California and Mexico, and those which fall into the Missouri river, and continuing in that direction to the Mississippi; thence up that river to the source of its highest and north-western branch; thence along the high tract of country which divides the waters of the Missouri from those which fall into Hudson's Bay and the North Sea, from whence it will continue across the rocky countries to the Pacific Ocean, in latitude about 52° north. To the south of this general division the known countries will be Old and New Mexico, and a part of Louisiana; to the south-east, West and East Florida; to the east, the United States, to the north-east, Canada, the Labrador country, part of New South Wales, and of other countries round Hudson's Bay; and to the North, part of New South Wales, the Athabasca, and other countries containing the establishments of the Hudson's Bay and North-west companies, and those explored by Hearne and M'Kenzie.'

The intermediate space contains about one thousand miles in breadth, and extends one thousand and eight hundred miles in a direct line. Many parts of this vast region were visited by the expedition under the command of Captain Lewis and Captain Clarke of the United States, between the years 1804 and 1806. All the persons who belonged to this 'corps of discovery,' and possessed sufficient capacity for the purpose, were ordered to keep journals of their rout. These journals were occasionally 'compared, corrected, and

any blanks which had been left, filled up, and unavoidable omissions supplied. Though the present volume, from the dry form of a journal which it preserves throughout, is not likely to furnish many interesting details to the general reader, it will nevertheless be found to contain abundance of information which will be highly prized by the geographer, and by those who meditate a settlement in this remote part of the American continent.

Were we to follow Mr. Gass through the whole extent of his journal, we should be able to present the reader with little more than an enumeration of his movements from place to place; accompanied with only an occasional and very scanty sprinkling of such particulars and occurrences as are calculated to gratify general curiosity.

We shall quote Mr. Gass's journal during a short period of his travels, which will serve as a tolerable specimen of the performance:

'Monday 27th May, 1805.—We have now got into a country which presents little to our view, but scenes of barrenness and desolation; and see no encouraging prospects that it will terminate. Having proceeded by the course of this river (the Missouri) about two thousand three hundred miles, it may therefore not be improper to make two or three general observations respecting the country we have passed.

'From the mouth of the Missouri to that of the river Platte, a distance of more than six hundred miles, the land is generally of a good quality, with a sufficient quantity of timber; in many places very rich, and the country pleasant and beautiful.

'From the confluence of the river Platte with the Missouri to the Sterile desert we lately entered, a distance of upwards of fifteen hundred miles, the soil is less rich, and except in the bottoms the land of an inferior quality; but may in general be called good second-rate land. The country is rather hilly than level, though not mountainous, rocky or stony. The hills in their unsheltered state are much exposed to be washed by heavy rains. This kind of country and soil which has fallen under our observation in our progress up the Missouri extends, it is understood, to a great distance on both sides of the river. Along the Missouri and the waters which flow into it, cotton wood and willows are frequent in the bottoms and islands; but the upland is almost entirely without timber, and consists of large prairies or plains, the boundaries of which the eye cannot reach. The grass is generally short on these immense natural pastures, which in the proper seasons are decorated with blossoms and flowers of various colours. The views from the hills are interesting and grand. Wide extended plains with their hills and vales, stretching away in lessening wavy ridges, until by their distance they fade from the sight; large rivers and streams in their rapid course, winding in various meanders; groves of cotton-wood

and willow along the waters intersecting the landscapes in different directions, dividing them into various forms at length appearing like dark clouds and sinking in the horizon; these enlivened with the buffaloe, elk, deer, and other animals which in vast numbers feed upon the plains or pursue their prey, are the prominent objects, which compose the extensive prospects presented to the view, and strike the attention of the beholder.

'The islands in the Missouri are of various sizes; in general not large, and during high water, mostly overflowed.

'There are Indian paths along the Missouri, and some in other parts of the country. Those along that river do not generally follow its windings, but cut off points of land and pursue a direct course. There are also roads and paths made by the buffaloe and other animals; some of the buffaloe roads are at least ten feet wide. We did not embark this morning until eight o'clock. The day was fine, but the wind a-head. We had difficult water, and passed through the most dismal country I ever beheld; nothing but barren mountains on both sides of the river, as far as our view could extend. The bed of the river is rocky, and also the banks and hills in some places; but these are chiefly of earth. We went thirteen miles and encamped in a bottom, just large enough for the purpose, and made out to get enough of drift wood to cook with.

'Tuesday 28th.—We set sail early, had a fine morning, and proceeded on through this desert country until about four o'clock P.M. when we came to a more pleasant part. We made twenty-one miles and encamped on the north side.

'Wednesday 29th.—We proceeded on early and had a fine morning; passed two rivers, one on each side. At twelve, it became cloudy and began to rain. We went about eighteen miles and halted at a handsome grove of timber on the south side. It rained a little all the afternoon. Some of the men went out to hunt and killed an elk. Last night about twelve o'clock, a buffaloe swimming the river happened to land at one of the periogues, crossed over it, and broke two guns, but not so as to render them useless. He then went straight on through the men where they were sleeping, but hurt none of them. As we came along to-day, we passed a place where the Indians had driven above an hundred head of buffaloe down a precipice and killed them.'

'Thursday 30th.—The forenoon was cloudy, with some rain. We did not set out till late in the day. The hills came in close on the river again, but are not so high. Some of them are as black as coal, and some white as chalk. We see a great many fresh Indian tracks or signs as we pass along. It rained a little all day; we went on slow and encamped early on the north side, in a small bottom with some cotton-wood, having proceeded on eight miles. There are no pines to be seen on the hills.

'Friday 31st.—We embarked early in a cloudy morning; passed through a mountainous country, but the game is more plenty,

and we killed some buffaloe in our way. About eleven o'clock it began to rain slowly, and continued raining two hours, when it cleared up. We passed some very curious cliffs and rocky peaks, in a long range; some of them two-hundred feet high and not more than eight feet thick. They seem as if built by the hand of man, and are so numerous that they appear like the ruins of an antient city. We went $17\frac{1}{2}$ miles and encamped at the mouth of a handsome creek on the north side.

'Saturday 1st June, 1805.—We embarked early. The morning was cloudy, but without rain. We passed through a more handsome country, than for some days past. It appears more level, and there are some good bottoms on both sides of the river, but not large; also a number of beautiful small islands covered with cotton-wood. We saw a number of mountain sheep. Yesterday our men killed three of them, that had remarkable large horns; one pair weighed twenty-five pounds. We passed a small river on the north side about eleven o'clock. The water is not so rapid to-day as usual, but continues high. In the afternoon we passed a creek about thirty yards wide, and several small islands. We went twenty-four miles and encamped on a small island.

'Sunday 2d.—We embarked early in a fine morning. The hills come close on the river, but are not so high nor so broken, as we found them a short distance lower down. This forenoon we passed two creeks, one on each side, and several islands covered with cotton-wood; but there is not a stick of timber to be seen any where upon the hills. Some of the hunters killed a brown bear in a small bottom on the south side, and having come eighteen miles, we encamped just above the bottom on the same side, at the mouth of a large river.

'Monday 3d.—We crossed over to the point between the two rivers and encamped there. The commanding officers could not determine which of these rivers or branches it was proper to take; and therefore concluded to send a small party up each of them. Myself and two men went up the south branch, and a sergeant and two more up the north. The parties went up the two branches about fifteen miles. We found the south branch rapid with a great many islands and the general course south-west. The other party reported the north branch as less rapid, and not so deep as the other. The north branch is one hundred and eighty-six yards wide and the south three hundred and seventy-two yards. The water of the south branch is clear, and that of the north muddy. About a mile and an half up the point from the confluence, a handsome small river falls into the north branch, called Rose river. Its water is muddy, and the current rapid. Captain Lewis took a meridian altitude at the point, which gave $47^{\circ}. 24. 12.$ north latitude. Captain Lewis and Captain Clarke were not yet satisfied with respect to the proper river to ascend.

'Tuesday 4th.—Captain Lewis with six men went up the north branch, to see if they could find any certain marks to determine whether that was the Missouri or not; and Captain Clarke, myself and four others went up the south branch, for the same purpose with regard to that branch. About eight miles above the confluence the south branch and the small river which falls into the north branch, are not more than two-hundred yards apart. Near this place and close on the bank of the south branch is a beautiful spring where we refreshed ourselves with a good drink of grog; and proceeded on through the high plains. Here nothing grows but prickly pears, which are in abundance, and some short grass. We went on about thirty miles and found the river still extending in a south-west direction. We saw a mountain to the south about twenty miles off, which appeared to run east and west, and some spots on it resembling snow. In the evening we went towards the river to encamp, where one of the men having got down to a small point of woods on the bank, before the rest of the party, was attacked by a huge he-bear, and his gun missed fire. We were about two-hundred yards from him, but the bank there was so steep we could not get down to his assistance: we, however, fired at the animal from the place we stood, and he went off without injuring the man. Having got down, we all encamped in an old Indian lodge for the night.

'Wednesday 5th.—Some light showers of rain fell in the night, and the morning was cloudy. When preparing to set out, we discovered three bears coming up the river towards us: we therefore halted awhile and killed the whole of them. About seven, we set out along the plains again, and discovered the mountain south of us covered with snow, that had fallen last night. When we had got about eleven miles, we saw a large mountain to the west of us also covered with snow. This mountain appeared to run from north to south, and to be very high. The bearing of the river is still south-west. Captain Clarke thought this a good course for us to proceed on our voyage, and we turned back towards the camp again. We went about fifteen miles and struck the small river about twenty miles from its mouth. Here we killed some elk and deer, and encamped all night. There is a great deal of timber in the bottoms of this little river, and plenty of different kinds of game. In these bottoms I saw the stalks of a plant resembling flax in every particular.

'Thursday 6th.—We proceeded down the small river and killed some deer. About one o'clock we went on the plains again which we kept on till we came to the point in the evening. Captain Lewis and his party had not returned. Some light rain fell this afternoon.

'Friday 7th.—It rained all day: Captain Lewis and party did not return.

'Saturday 8th.—A fine cool morning. About ten o'clock A. M. the water of the south river, or branch, became almost of the co-

four of claret, and remained so all day. The water of the other branch has the appearance of milk when contrasted with the water of this branch in its present state. About four in the afternoon, Captain Lewis and his party came to camp. They had been up the north branch about sixty miles, and found it navigable that distance; not so full of islands as the other branch, and a greater quantity of timber near it and plenty of game, which is not the case on the south branch. Its bearing something north of west a considerable distance, and then to the south of west. The party while out, killed eighteen deer and some elk. From the appearance of the river where they left it to return, they supposed it might be navigable a considerable distance further. They saw no mountains a-head, but one off towards the north: it is not covered with snow like those we had seen. Both these rivers abound in fish; and we caught some of different kinds but not large. About five o'clock in the afternoon, the weather became cloudy and cold, and it began to rain. The officers concluded that the south branch was the most proper to ascend, which they think is the Missouri. The other they called Maria's river. At dark the rain ceased.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE.

RELIGION.

ART. 16.—*A Sermon against Witchcraft, preached in the Parish Church of Great Paxton, in the County of Huntingdon, July 17, 1808. With a brief Account of the Circumstances which led to the atrocious Attacks on the Person of Ann Izzard, as a reputed Witch. By the Reverend Isaac Nicholson, A.M. Mawman. 8vo. 1808.*

THOSE persons, who have deprecated the progress of philosophy, will probably rejoice to learn from the perusal of the introduction to the present sermon, that even this enlightened isle is not without an ample residue of superstition. But at the same time we fear that those pious gentlemen, who think that social order is best preserved by barbarous ignorance, will see some reasons to doubt the justness of their conclusions, and to adopt the contrary opinion, that the diffusion of science and of knowledge is that which best prepares the way for the prevention of lawless outrage, and for the preservation of political tranquillity.

Ann Izzard, an elderly dame of the parish of Great Paxton in the county of Huntingdon, was, in the month of April last, accused by her neighbours of having bewitched three persons of the names of Alice Brown, Fanny Amey, and Mary Fox. Whether the unlucky

resemblance of the name Izzard to that of Wizzard, may not by some unaccountable association of ideas have encouraged the charge, or whether there were any thing in the appearance of this good woman which encouraged the idea of her diabolical communications, we know not ; but Mr. Nicholson tells us that she is by no means ill-looking, and therefore we must believe that the assumption of her being a witch could not rest on the extraordinary ugliness of her aspect ; and yet if there had been any portion of feminine witchery in her face, we can hardly believe that even the clowns of Paxton would have offered such outrageous indignities to her person. The supposition that Ann Izzard had bewitched her three neighbours above mentioned was *confirmed* by the overturning of a cart drawn by a restive horse, containing some grocery belonging to a shop-keeper in the village. Now to whom could the wiseacres in the village, among whom are said to be many proselytes of methodism,—to whom could these true *original sinners*, these worshippers of justification and atonement, these stout maintainers of vicarious action, so well ascribe the damage which had befallen the tea and sugar of the grocer, as to the person who knew no more of the matter than the man or woman in the moon ?—It would have been quite inconsistent in them not to refer this catastrophe to her ; nor would they have acted with their usual *softness of heart*, if they had not by way of revenge pounced upon this non-offending dame, like tigers, in the night. The cottage in which Ann Izzard lived with her husband, Wright Izzard, is at some distance from the body of the village of Paxton. Hither the *godly crew* marched in the silence of the night, and having reached the door of the poor man's house, very *piously* broke it open, and very *humanely* ' dragged his wife out of bed, and threw her naked into the yard ; where her arms were torn with pins, her head was dashed against the large stones of the causeway—and her face, stomach and breast were severely bruised with a thick stick that served as a bar to the house.'—The true original-sin heroes, having with their usual consistency, *done God this piece of service* at their neighbour's expense, went home, no doubt singing psalms and rejoicing that they had obtained a *saving interest in the blood of the lamb*. In about five days after this, finding the old lady still alive, they paid her a second visit ; and made a second proof of their justifying faith and their reliance on the atonement by treating her as before. Learning that she was not dead the next morning, they resolved to see whether she could not be drowned at night ; but this *righteous experiment* was frustrated by the timely removal of the poor object to a neighbouring village, where she was rescued from the farther persecution of the *original sin-troopers*, the marauders of civil society enlisted under the banners of *justifying faith*, inscribed with the words of mortal warfare on all reason and humanity, VIOLENCE, CRUELTY, AND MURDER MADE SAFE AND EASY BY THE BLOOD OF THE LAMB.

When Ann Izzard informed Mr. Nicholson that her neighbours had accused her of witchcraft, he says that she offered to disprove the assertion by being '*weighed against the church bible!*'—Now if Mr. Nicholson, instead of preaching this elaborate discourse to his superstitious and half-savage parishioners, in order to shake their belief in witchcraft, had adopted the simple experiment which this poor inoffensive woman suggested, we believe that he would have done more towards refuting the current idea of his flock, that Ann Izzard was a witch, than by any mere argumentative mode which he could have pursued. This *proof*, adapted to their gross senses, would have exceeded in potency any evidence which biblical criticism could supply; not one ray of which could penetrate their impenetrably dull and marvellously benighted understandings. One folly would thus have been counteracted by another; and it is vain to deliver such a sensible and erudite discourse, as Mr. Nicholson has here published, to a mass of fanatics and fools. The *weighing of Ann Izzard against the church bible* might have had some chance of success in refuting the general prepossession that she was a dealer in witchcraft, while Mr. Nicholson's Hebrew philology would be only thrown away like fragrance on the desert air. But whatever may have been the effect of Mr. Nicholson's sermon on the *original-sin-mob* in the parish of Paxton, it may be read with pleasure and instruction out of the Bæotian confines of that place; and at least it furnishes one pretty strong proof that a new translation of the Scriptures of the Old Testament is wanting and ought not to be delayed.

ART. 17.—*The Works of Creation, a Series of Discourses for Boyle's Lecture; No. 1, being the First Sermon of the Series delivered at St. Mary le-Bow Church, Cheapside, on Monday the 5th of September, 1808. By the Rev. Edward Repton, A.M. of Magdalen College, Oxford, Curate of Crayford, in Kent. Mawman, 8vo. 1803.*

THE learned and pious Mr. Boyle instituted a lecture to prove the truth of the Christian religion against the objections of Atheists, Theists, Pagans, Jews, and Mahometans.—He left a salary of fifty pounds *per annum* to the lecturer, who is to be appointed for any term not exceeding three years. The lectures are delivered on the first Mondays of January, February, March, April, May, September, October, November; but in too many instances they have been read only to empty walls. The object of Mr. Repton, in publishing one sermon of a series before he has delivered the rest, appears to be to attract an audience to his future discourses. This wish is natural; but, when we consider the little interest which sermons usually excite, unless when seasoned with the cayenne of fanatic rant, we are very dubious whether Mr. Repton, during the period of his lectureship, will be gratified by the sight of overflowing pews. On the merits of Mr. Repton's discourses we shall deliver no opinion till the whole are published.

POLITICS.

ART. 18.—*Agriculture the Source of the Wealth of Britain; a Reply to the Objections urged by Mr. Mill, the Edinburgh Reviewers, and Others, against the Doctrine of the Pamphlet, entitled, 'Britain Independent of Commerce,' with Remarks on the Monthly Reviewers upon that Work. By William Spence, F.L.S. Cadell and Davies. 8vo. 1809.*

IN this pamphlet Mr. Spence complains that his meaning in the work entitled, '*Britain independent of Commerce*,' has been mistaken or misrepresented by his opponents, particularly Mr. Mill; and that conclusions have been imputed to him which are not warranted by his premises. Mr. Spence tells us that, notwithstanding the keen-sighted scrutiny which his pamphlet has undergone, and the different attempts which have been made to confute it, he regards 'the main principles of his pamphlet as unshaken and its conclusions as immoveable.'

As far as we can understand the subject, the main principle of Mr. Spence is that '*ALL WEALTH IS CREATED BY AGRICULTURE*,' and the main conclusion from this proposition is that, '*BRITAIN IS INDEPENDENT OF COMMERCE*.' Now what can Mr. Spence according to the plain signification of the words, mean by the universal proposition that, *ALL wealth is created by agriculture* but that *no wealth is derived from any other source*. His universal affirmative in the first instance necessarily implies an universal negative in the second. But Mr. Spence soon departs from his own principles and contradicts the conclusions which follow from them by a legitimate deduction. For he tells us that, '*manufactures are the great cause of our improved agriculture*,' and that, '*it is by an attention to manufactures, that the European nations can alone effect a productive cultivation of their soil*.' Thus Mr. Spence first represents agriculture as every thing, and next he considers it as subordinate to manufactures. In one instance it is the principal, in another it is the accessory. The first and main proposition of Mr. Spence that *ALL WEALTH IS CREATED BY AGRICULTURE*, must be false, unless by wealth Mr. Spence means nothing but bread-corn. It is very unfortunate for an author when he founds a theory on an ambiguous and indefinite expression. Such is the word *wealth*, as it is used by Mr. Spence; and it still remains ambiguous and indefinite after all his explanations. In proportion as he modifies, limits and restrains his general propositions, as he has done in his present pamphlet, he departs from the principle which he had originally established, and rather shakes than consolidates his theory, rather renders it incongruous and discordant, than regular and just. The main propositions, by which Mr. Spence attempts to prove that Britain is independent of commerce, are expressed in terms so vague, indefinite, and obscure, that they are liable to eternal cavil and doubt, and his conclusions cannot clearly and incontrovertibly follow from his premises. In questions like those which Mr. Spence

has discussed, unless the terms which are employed are used with mathematical precision, nothing but strife, perplexity, and confusion can ensue. When two disputants use the same words in different senses, they can never meet, however near they may approximate.

Mr. Spence, having asserted that 'all wealth is created by agriculture,' tells us nevertheless, p. 12, that 'commerce in general may be a source of wealth to particular nations.' 'Though' adds he 'in the abstract no wealth is created by commerce, particular countries may transfer to themselves, by its means, a greater share of wealth than they would otherwise have possessed, and thus it certainly becomes a source of wealth to them.' This is a specimen of the vague and indeterminate manner in which Mr. Spence sometimes expresses himself; which often leaves the reader in uncertainty about the real principles which he defends, and the convictions which he wishes to impress. If Mr. Spence does not clearly know his own meaning, or if that meaning varies in different parts of his work, we cannot wonder that it should be mistaken by his readers or that no consistent representation should be given of that which is in itself a mass of inconsistencies.

But though we do not think the mind of Mr. Spence equal to the formation of a philosophical, regular, and consistent theory on a subject so perplexed and perplexing as that of the true source of national wealth, yet many of his remarks are very ingenious, forcible and acute. The following may serve as a specimen:

'This mode of estimating our taxes—not by their nominal money amount, but by the commodities which they will purchase, and the men they will subsist—would help us to avoid the very common error of supposing that our real wealth has doubled within these 20 years, because we can now pay 60 millions in taxes, with as much ease as we could then pay 30 millions. The fact is that within the last twenty years the price of every thing has been more than doubled. When, therefore, we pay 60 millions in taxes at present, we do not really pay more than 30 millions would have been 20 years ago; and we can now as easily pay the former sum, as we could then have paid the latter. This consideration, too, will shew us the error of estimating the relative power of the continental states and our own, by the *nominal* amount of the revenues of each. Thus, some would suppose that France, with a revenue equal to 40 millions sterling, is much poorer than Britain with one of 60 millions. But, in truth, she is much richer; for 40 millions in France are equal to 80 millions in Britain. The cost of keeping up naval and military establishments being there only half as much as in this country, 40 millions in France are equal to 80 millions here.—There is one view of the effect which the augmentation in the price of every thing in this country has had, which, though it is but distantly connected with this subject, deserves to be pointed out. I mean; *That this augmentation of price has virtually extinguished a large portion of the national debt.* Thus, for the 100 millions of that debt contracted in the American war, we now *really* pay only half as much interest

as was agreed to be paid when it was borrowed ; which is the same thing as if 50 millions of that debt were wiped off. That this is true, must be allowed if we leave a circulating medium out of question. The holder of £.10,000 stock, bought during the American war, could at that time have purchased twice as much with the interest of it, as he now can. He has virtually, therefore, lost half of his capital ; and the nation in reality only pays him half the sum it agreed to pay. This view of the national debt, which, as far as I know, is new, will enable us to conceive how such a debt may be increased to a vast extent without inducing national ruin, or even absorbing all the revenue of the land proprietors. By increasing the price of commodities in proportion as it increases, (for to this cause, principally I am persuaded should be attributed our rise of prices, and not, as the Edinburgh Reviewer has contended, to any influx of the precious metals or augmentation of paper money), it virtually in a great measure extinguishes itself in its progress. If the original lenders to the state, had had the wisdom to stipulate for a *corn* interest, the nation would be burthened with the payment of an interest to them, nearly twice as great as it now pays.

ART. 19.—*Exposition of the Practices and Machinations which led to the Usurpation of the Crown of Spain, and the Means adopted by Bonaparte to carry it into execution. By Don Pedro Cevallos, first Secretary of State and Dispatches to his Catholic Majesty Ferdinand VII.—Taken from the Times of Monday October 10th. 4to. 1s. Ridgway. 1808.*

THOUGH we do not place implicit credit in all that Don Pedro Cevallos has here said, respecting his own loyalty, fidelity, and patriotism, yet his statement is full of curious and important details, which throw considerable light on the character of Bonaparte and on the falsehood, fraud, and violence which he practised in order to get possession of the crown of Spain. Napoleon appears to have long cast an ambitious look on the peninsula of Portugal and Spain ; and, after the peace of Tilsit, when he could no longer expect any resistance from the north of Europe, he determined to convert those countries into appendages to his imperial dominion, whatever loss of reputation he might sustain or whatever difficulties he might encounter in the attempt.

By the treaty which was concluded on the 27th of October between Isquierdo and Duroc, in which the favourite Godoy was bribed by the promise of a considerable territory in the partition of Portugal, Bonaparte found a specious pretext for introducing his armies into Spain. By sowing dissensions between the royal family of Spain, he designed to divide the people into factions, in order that by playing off one against the other and successively flattering the hopes of both, he might be able to blind the eyes of all to his real intentions, and might thus secure possession of his object before his design could be developed or any effectual resistance be prepared. But his first plan was in some measure altered by intervening circumstances. Instead of dividing the people by causing dissension

in the palace, he found all orders, disgusted with the weak and imbecile conduct of Charles, and his ministers, unanimous in their support of the prince of Asturias. Few princes have ascended the throne with the more general satisfaction of their subjects than Ferdinand VII. The mode which Bonaparte practised to get possession of the crown of Spain varied with his circumstances. At one period he evidently designed, by working on the fears of the royal house of Spain, as he had on that of Portugal, to induce Charles and his court to seek an asylum in their American possessions. Charles and his favourite had evidently begun preparations for that purpose; but the design was frustrated by the commotions at Aranjuez on the 17th and 19th of March. When Bonaparte saw that the old king, whether impelled by inclination, or forced by fear, had abdicated the throne, and that that abdication was universally grateful to the people, he found it very essential to the success of his insidious machinations to obtain possession of the person of Ferdinand. The manner in which he effected this, which is very circumstantially related by Don Cevallos, while it proves Ferdinand himself to be one of the weakest, shews Bonaparte to be one of the most perfidious and flagitious of men. We have heard of silly birds flying into the mouth of a serpent; the conduct of the bird bears a close resemblance to that of Ferdinand. The great serpent Napoleon was waiting at Bayonne ready to receive him in his envenomed embrace; and into that embrace this helpless victim of a king precipitates himself, as if under the influence of irresistible fascination. We think, however, that in this instance the ambition of Bonaparte has overstepped his prudence, and that the seizure of Ferdinand has proved the greatest obstacle to his designs on the sovereignty of Spain. Had he left Ferdinand in the country, he would either have been willing like the old king to govern as his viceroy; or, if he had acquiesced in the general wish to rescue Spain from its dependance on France, the presence of such a weak and contemptible puppet at the head of the government would have paralysed the energetic motions of the patriots, and have left the kingdom a more easy conquest than it will now prove to the troops of France.

Bonaparte evidently mistook the moral and intellectual state of the Spanish people. He thought that, benumbed at once by the united effects of superstition and of despotism, their minds opposed insuperable obstacles to the infusion of any enlightened sentiments, and that the flame of patriotism could not be kindled in their veins.

POETRY.

ART. 20.—*An Heroic Epistle to Mr. Winsor, the Patentee of the Hydro-Carbonic Gas Lights, and Founder of the National Light and Heat Company, &c.* Spencer. 1803.

IF we may be allowed to judge from the removal of the gas apparatus from Pall-Mall, and from the late absence of the Winsorian

puff, from the newspapers of the day, we should be inclined to pronounce the patentee of the hydro-carbonic gas lights to be at length become sensible of his incapability to juggle the people of England to the extent he proposed. The author of the present mock-heroic poem occasionally glances at the facility with which John Bull is duped, and ridicules in a vein of pleasantry his fondness for novelties; among many others the follies of the 'Royal Institution,' are not the least prominent.

' See from the Institution's crowded fane,
Where cradled science holds a gossip reign;
Where sage professors of hermetic lore,
To babes and sucklings dole a weekly store;
Feed infant genius, mewling in the lap,
With chymic caudle—philosophic pap;
Where lady loungers (shopping laid aside)
Assume the pedant port of letter'd pride,
Quit beauty's soft pursuits, and pleasing cares,
For foul experiments on filthy airs;
Raise the Galvanic pile with moisten'd hand,
And bid metallic forms by heat expand;
Midst chymic oxydes, fluids, fæces poke,
Now try the electric spark—and now the stroke:
See thence enlighten'd Misses come to prove,
That Winsor's Gas best feeds the flame of love;
And whilst poor Hero's hapless fate they mourn,
Whose lamp was trimm'd with oil that would not burn,
Say, if thy patent lamps, whose beacon light
Guides to King's Place Leanders every night,
Had from the watch-tower beam'd o'er Helle's wave,
The lovers had not found a watery grave.'

ART. 21.—*Poems. By Mary Leadbeater, (late Shackleton;) to which is prefixed, her Translation of the thirteenth Book of the Æneid, with the Latin Original, written in the fifteenth Century by Maffeus. 8vo. Longman. 1808.*

MRS. Leadbeater has had a numerous acquaintance, who have all come in for their share of her poetical palaver; Mr. Burke is the most conspicuous figure in the group, and all the rest, as if unworthy of being named in that same page with the deceased politician, are merely addressed by their initials: We have lines on W. L.'s recovery from a fever—on R.S.'s Watch; on E.G. on I. S. on B. H. on Dr.C. on T.B. and H.D. on A.S. and the whole alphabet.—The longest and worst of the poems in the present volume is the translation from Maffeus; which, however, is as good as the original deserves, notwithstanding the praises bestowed upon him by Julius Scaliger and Vossius. The fair author certainly possesses considerable talents, which we are sorry to find she employs on subjects too trivial to be perused by indifferent readers, and which claim at-

tention only from those who have the pleasure of her intimate acquaintance.

ART. 22.—*Critical Opinions and complimentary Verses on the Poems of H. Downman, M. D. particularly on those addressed to Thespia, edited by a Friend. To the above are added, Verses occasioned by the Death of Lieut. General Simcoe.* 8vo. Cadell and Davies. 1808.

WHATEVER the friend of Dr. Downman may think to the contrary,

Mediocribus esse poetis

Non dii, non homines, non concessere columnæ.

ART. 23.—*Another Word or two, or architectural Hints continued in Lines to those Royal Academicians, who are Painters, addressed to them on the Selection of Benjamin West, Esq. to the President's Chair, 10th December 1806, by Fabricia Nunny, Spinster, with Dedication, Preface, Notes, and Appendix.* 12mo. Payne. 1807.

FABRICIA writes to persuade a reformation in the royal academy; and if reformation take place, it will be because the good sense of the academy feels the strong necessity.

ART. 24.—*The Comic Works in Prose and Poetry of G. M. Woodward, Author of Eccentric Excursions in England, the Caricature Magazine, &c.* 8vo. 4s. 6d. Tegg. 1808.

MANY of the absurdities contained in this volume we remember to have seen several years ago; some such as the 'Old Maid's prayer,' posted in a temple of Cloacina, and others lying scattered about the same place, either for the amusement or the use of her votaries. Mr. Woodward, who is also an artist, has now collected them into a volume, to which is prefixed a portrait of himself, painted by Buck, and engraved by Cheeseman! a name tragically ominous we fear to the author's 'comic works.'

ART. 25.—*The Vaccine Phantasmagoria.* 4to. 2s. 6d. Murray. 1808.

ART. 26.—*The Vaccine Scourge, in Answer to the Calumnies and Falsehoods lately circulated with great Industry by that extraordinary Surgeon, Mr. Birch, and other Anti-Vaccinists.* 8vo. 1s. 1808.

NON defensoribus istis
Tempus eget.

ART. 27.—*Les Fastes Britanniques. Poeme Historique. Formant un précis de l'Histoire de la Grande Bretagne, &c.*

The Britannic Fasti. An historical Poem. Forming an Abstract of the History of Great Britain from the Invasion of Julius Cæsar to the Rupture of the last Negotiations between France and England. By M. Lenoir, Professor of the French Language and Literature at London, Author of &c. &c. &c. 8vo. pp. 200. 12s. Printed for the Author, and sold by Dulau, Didier, and Boosey. 1807.

THE Work before us is not of sufficient consequence, either in its design or its execution, to merit so long a dissertation on the importance, and antiquity of historical poetry as that which the author has, with all possible solemnity, prefixed to it. He values himself highly on his having compressed all the principal events 'of 1862 years within the limits of 1872 verses;' and if we cannot forbear smiling at his grave request 'that this *vigorous effort* of his genius may not be placed in the rank of *difficiles nugæ*,' we will not, however, deny him the praise of conveying a great deal of useful instruction in easy verse, and a very concise form, and thus contriving a serviceable exercise for the use of young proficient, at once in the French language and in the English history. His expression, '*difficiles nugæ*,' reminds us of another ingenious contrivance for the benefit of historical scholars which was a great favourite with us in the days of childhood, but has never fallen in our way at any subsequent period; a series of cards, containing (together with a portrait of every king since the conquest,) an *acrostic* on the character and principal actions of each of our sovereigns, composed from the initials of his respective name and title. Is that very amusing collection still in existence, or has it altogether perished in the mass of forgotten things?

We would not, however, be understood as instituting a comparison between this little bagatelle and the labours of M. Lenoir, which, besides their being so admirably calculated 'a double debt to pay,' are much more refined and scientific in their principles and execution. The poetry, from the beginning, to the reign of Henry the eighth, is accompanied by a running commentary or historical supplement in prose; and this arrangement continues, in the form of detached notes, to the end of the work. M. Lenoir informs us that he has studiously consulted, for the purposes of this compilation, Hume, Henry, Smollet, Coote, and Macfarlane, besides occasionally, (but with caution,) referring to the *Père d'Orleans* and M. Turpin, his continuator. We could not, however, avoid entertaining some doubts with regard to his accuracy in drawing conclusions, from the following sentence in his preface.

'In like manner as Pope and Boileau demonstrate on the authority of Aristotle and Horace, that such and such writers are unequal to such and such others, so we also shew, on the warranty of the celebrated Hume and others, whom we have consulted, that *Henry VII. was a great king, an excellent prince*, and his son a tyrant perhaps worse than Caligula.'

We immediately referred to that part of the *Fasti*, in which the history of these princes is contained; and find all virtues under the sun profusely lavished on the former of them;

Qui, juste et bon à tous, a soi-même sévère,
Du pauvre industrieux, releva la misère,

While Henry the eighth (bad enough, we will allow) is not only not allowed the shadow of a single virtue, but is gravely charged

with the exploded and vulgar tale of Jane Seymour's death, and with the speech (*froidement barbare*, indeed, had he ever spoken it;) 'Go, save the child! There are wives enough to be had, but one cannot have a son when one pleases.'

These instances prove that it will not be quite safe to take M. Lenoir as an infallible guide to the study of English history; but similar faults occur less frequently than might be expected; and few readers can object to the truth of such lines as the following.

'Broke, Clarke, Watson, Lord Grey, Griffin, Markham,
Le Chevalier Raleigh se joignent à Cobham.

—Norwich, Owen, Holland, Hamilton et Capel
Eprouvent les chagrins d'un proces.criminel,

—Le desloyal Monmouth, le vertueux Sidney,'

Essex, Howard, Hampden, Russel, Walcot, Rumsey,' &c.&c.
nor do we wish to dispute the accuracy of the fact with regard to Queen Anne, viz. that

'Lady Marlborough, par ses tracasseries,
Finit par la jeter dans les bras des Tories.'

M. Lenoir will excuse us for indulging a smile at the expence of some of his verses, the only faults of which rest on the inharmonious nature of our own language, and the consequent difficulty of the subject he has chosen. We will conclude by extracting a few which are more creditable to his poetical character, at the same time that they reflect infinite honour on his talents as a courtier. Immediately after noticing the death of George II. our bard proceeds;

'Fidèle scrutateur des actions des rois,
Je t'implore, Clio; viens soutenir ma voix.
Du puissant Jupiter si tu te dis la fille,
Les Princes bienfaisans sont tous de sa famille;
O muse, souviens-toi que chanter leurs bienfaits,
De ton père divin c'est retracer les traits:
Pour un si grand dessein, c'est peu d'être poète;
Daigne donc m'inspirer; prête-moi ta trompette;
Et prêt à célébrer de nos jours le Titus,
Réfléchis, sur mes vers, l'éclat de ses vertus.'

This most interesting and difficult part of his subject, the reign of George the third, is executed throughout with a spirit answerable to so sublime an apostrophe. After enrolling 'Fox, Grey, Sheridan, Erskine, Whitbread, dans la chambre basse; Stanhope, Lauderdale, Norfolk, Bedford, and Lansdown, dans celle des Pairs,' without pity or remorse, in the black list of historical proscription, and after paying the tribute of unqualified applause to the memory of their great opponent in the long war of politics, he concludes with a line, of which we trust that the heart of every Englishman will beat responsive to the truth;

IL EST BEAU DE NOURIR POUR SAUVER SA PATRIE.

NOVELS.

ART. 28.—*Delworth, or Elevated Generosity.* By T. Southwood. 3 Vols. 15s. Crosby and Co. 1808.

DELWORTH, is intended (we presume) by the author to be a very elevated character; but from a careful perusal of this very stupid and pernicious performance, we are compelled to say that we find him of no character at all; or if any, of one that is very unnatural and very profligate. It would be spending our time to little purpose, and wasting our paper, which is very valuable, to give the heads of the story, even if we had the good fortune to make it out clearly. But we have still a stronger motive for not doing this in the immoral tendency of the work itself; and when we consider how indiscriminately books of this kind are read, and how eagerly they are devoured by young girls and young boys, calling themselves young men and young women, we are shocked at the growing mischief; indignant, at the authors of such abominable corruptions, and grieve that the press should be so much disgraced.

To give a specimen of this Mr. Southwood's style of writing we will quote the following paragraph, where speaking of a Mr. Maitland the father of the heroine of the piece, he says, 'He was arrived at that age, when the maturity of man arrives; when he is to be seen in the fairest and most advantageous light; when he is no longer driven about like a feather in the whirlwind of contending passions; when his habits are completely settled and his character is completely formed: when all the powers of his mind are expanded and improved to the fullest extent; and when he resembles the majestic oak, which lifts its towering head to the skies, after it has witnessed the rolling years of a century.'—We might go on still further, but we trust that our sensible readers are sufficiently satisfied with this specimen. If it were possible for the young misses and masters who gorge this kind of reading to appreciate sense and nonsense, no harm would be dreaded; but when we consider how many have to ascribe their folly and their ruin to this kind of pernicious and destructive aliment, we cannot but grieve that a man should sit down and write such a thing as *Delworth*, shocking to every idea of delicacy, abhorrent from all notions of morality, and stupid and incomprehensible in every stage of the story, if a story it can be called which has neither connection, congruity, nor interest.

MISCELLANEOUS.

ART. 29.—*Problems in some of the higher Branches of Algebra.* 4to. Johnson. 1807.

THE preface, from which we subjoin the following extract, will sufficiently explain the nature of the contents of the volume before us; premising that the author has executed his undertaking with a

precision and accuracy which would reflect credit upon any mathematician.

‘ Besides, (and this is an improvement of much greater importance), whenever a problem is resolved by substituting for any functions whatever, which contain any powers above the first of the unknown quantities, provided the given equations be thus rationally represented, this resolution furnishes a theorem for resolving particular equations of the higher orders. Thus, if two equations were given to determine two unknown quantities, consisting of rational functions, of any such rational functions of these quantities, as supposing these functions to be known, it would afterwards require the resolution of a quadratic equation to find the quantities themselves: First of all, if by attempting to determine these quantities, directly from the given equations, it is found that they depend upon the resolution of an equation of the sixth degree, then these functions will be determined by the resolution of an equation of the third degree; and afterwards the quantities themselves, by the resolution of one of the second degree. But since it has been seen before, that these quantities which are now known, were the roots of an equation of the sixth degree; therefore, the roots of this equation of the sixth degree are also known.

‘ By reasoning in a similar manner, upon the different resolutions of problems, general theorems may easily be derived, for resolving quadratic, cubic, and biquadratic equations. And there certainly are problems, which by being resolved different ways, and afterwards these resolutions being compared together, will furnish general theorems for resolving equations of the fifth and higher degrees. The great advantage, moreover, of this method is, that every attempt this way furnishes different theorems for resolving particular equations of the higher orders. In order to illustrate the artifices, which the author has just before been endeavouring to explain, he has selected, from among many more, the few problems, which he has now ventured to lay before the public:

‘ From the resolution of the second of these problems, he has deduced a general theorem for resolving biquadratic equations; which, he believes, will be found quite as convenient as any one yet known. The theorem used in extracting the roots of the binomials in the examples of the two first problems, is given by Lacroix, in his *Treatise on the differential Calculus*, tom. i. p. 306.

‘ In the examples of the other problems, the author has resolved a cubic, or biquadratic equation, by the common method of substituting for the unknown quantities, the divisors of the last term of the equation, until those are found which succeed. This, he thinks, is the easiest way when there are any rational roots, but as there is not the least difficulty attending it, the operations are not set down.

‘ The best method he has seen, for finding the sums of the powers of the roots of an equation, and which he has made use of in the

resolution of the ninth problem, is that explained by Arbogast, in his work "Du Calcul des Derivations."

'The rule given in the sixteenth problem, for resolving a general biquadratic equation, will be found rather more convenient than either those of Euler, Des Cartes, or Bombelli: Since in resolving any proposed equation by these rules, it is necessary to destroy the second term of the intermediate cubic equation, before its roots can be discovered by the rule of Cardan. Whereas, by the rule given in this problem, a cubic equation is obtained, of which the second term is wanting, and to which, therefore, the rule of Cardan may be directly applied.

'In the last problem, the author has deduced the rules of Des Cartes and Euler, for resolving a general biquadratic equation from that of Bombelli; and he has afterwards compared together the roots of the cubic equations obtained by each of these rules, in resolving the same equation; in order to shew what little real difference there is between them, and how easy it is, when any one of them is known, to reduce the others from it. They are, in fact, all one and the same rule, only under different forms.'

ART. 30.—*Thoughts on the Expediency of disclosing the Processes of Manufactories, being the Substance of two Papers lately read before the Literary and Philosophical Society of Newcastle-upon-Tyne. By John Clemenel, F.S.A. Edinburgh and Perth. 8vo. Newcastle-upon-Tyne. 1807.*

THE author of the present pamphlet is an enlightened and liberal minded man; his design is to introduce to the attention of the public, the expediency of a general and faithful display of the processes of manufactories, in such a manner that every chance may be obtained for effecting the highest improvements with the least possible expence, by the interference of the operations of science: for this purpose he has divided his subject into three parts; first to discover the advantages or reverse which secrecy has effected; secondly, the direct benefit attending a disclosure; and in the third, he answers the objections that are urged by the advocates of mystery. In all these points, the author discovers a thorough knowledge; and no small obligations are due to him for his endeavours to promote so laudable a purpose. If objects are interesting in proportion to their magnitude, and if that importance is to be valued according to their influence on the interests of society, this under our consideration must insure attention, as it embraces the very means of existence of by far the greatest part of the population of the united kingdom.

ART. 31.—*The Doctrine of Interest and Annuities analytically investigated and explained, together with several useful Tables connected with the Subject. By Francis Bailey of the Stock Exchange. 4to. 15s. Richardson. 1808.*

THE mercantile world may consider themselves under peculiar obligations to Mr. Bailey for this very able compilation, the utili-

ty of which is at this time too manifest to be disputed, when we consider the numerous cases of daily occurrence, in which the question of interest both simple and compound is unavoidably concerned; the great and extensive business which is constantly transacting in the purchase and sale of annuities of various kinds, immediate and reversionary, temporary and perpetual; when we consider also the immense quantity of lands (belonging to corporate bodies and to individuals) which are held on leases for different terms of years, and which are continually required to be exchanged, sold or renewed; but above all when we consider its application in regard to our finances and national debt, with the help it affords us of pointing out the easiest and most effectual method of alleviating our present incumbrance, the utility of this publication, we repeat, cannot be questioned. In the first and four following chapters (the superstructure of all the rest.) the author has entered into a full investigation of the doctrine of interest both simple and compound, and has shown the various results which arise according to the periods at which such interest is payable. The next six chapters contain the principles of the doctrine of annuities, with their several affections, not only according to the times of the payment of interest, but also according to the periods at which the annuity itself becomes due and is payable. The twelfth and thirteenth chapters contain a full exposition of the doctrine of reversions and of the renewal of leases; together with several useful tables for calculating the value of fines which ought to be paid for the renewal of leases held under corporations and colleges. The four subsequent chapters contain an investigation of several useful and curious points which could not properly be classed under the preceding heads; and which are indeed of sufficient importance to form distinct sections of themselves. The last chapter is devoted principally to the application of this doctrine to various subjects in finance; and in this part are inserted several new formulæ, which may be very convenient and useful to such persons as have directed their attention to such studies.

List of articles which, with many others will appear in the next number of the Critical Review.

Illustrations of the Scenery of the Gentle Shepherd.

Jarrol's Anthropologia.

Cecil's Memoirs of the Rev. J. Newton.

Riddellian System.

Ingram's Disquisitions on Population.

Madame Cottin's Clair d'Albe.

Wardrop on the Eye.

Parke's Harleian Miscellany.

Margin's Essay on light Reading.

Dalton's new System of Chemistry.